

ONTARIO HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH GRAMMAR



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HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH GRAMMAR



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ONTARIO HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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PREFATORY NOTE

In order to meet changes in the course of study in English Grammar, it has been deemed advisable to simplify the presentation of the subject as it appeared in the former edition of the High School Grammar, by rearranging the subject-matter and by omitting details in the historical treatment of certain grammatical constructions. In the main, however, both the terminology and classifications have been retained almost unchanged.

The Editor desires to acknowledge his indebtedness to S. A. Morgan, B.A., D. Pæd., Principal of the Normal School, Hamilton; A. Stevenson, B.A., of the Normal School, London; Lyman Smith, B.A., Principal of the High School, Oshawa; and Professor W. H. Fraser, M.A., of the University of Toronto, for their criticism of the proofs of the text, and for valuable advice regarding both subject-matter and method of treatment.

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HIGH SCHOOL GRAMMAR

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

I. THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

1. Origin and Name.—The people from whom our language gets its name are those living in England; and, although English is now spoken by millions in many other parts of the world, its history as a language is confined almost wholly to England. Our forefathers came to that country from the lowlands in the north-western part of what is now called Germany, during the fifth, sixth and seventh centuries of the Christian era, and destroyed or pushed back the Celts, who had lived there before and who spoke a language much like Welsh of the present day. The invaders belonged to three different tribes, known as Angles, Saxons, and Jutes (or Frisians). History, however, leads us to believe that they were all of the Angle (or English) race, and that, with some slight differences, they spoke the same language. This language is rightly called English; for they almost always called themselves *Engle*, and their language *Englisc*.

2. Related to Other European Languages.—Because the English language was brought into England from the country now called Germany, and is like the other languages of that country, it is, for this reason, often called a **Germanic** (or, which is the same thing, a **Teutonic**) language. By comparing the languages and

literatures of Europe and Asia, scholars have been able to show that all the Teutonic languages, along with nearly all the others in Europe and some of the most important in Asia, form a great body of languages resembling one another, and hence called a family. This great family is known as the **Indo-European** (or the **Aryan**) family.

3. **Changes in Language.**—The English we speak at the present day is, in many ways, unlike the language that formerly went by that name. When first brought from Northern Germany to England, the language was so different from ours that we should not understand it if we heard it spoken; and we must study it just as we do French or German, before we are able to read it. And a thousand years hence, if English live so long, it will probably be so unlike what it now is that we, if we were to come to life again, should perhaps not understand it without a good deal of trouble. The reason is that every living language is continually changing; so that the speech of each generation differs somewhat from that of the one before it. In the course of time some old words go out of use; new words come into use; some change their meaning; all, or almost all, change their pronunciation; and the ways in which we put words together to express our thoughts become more or less changed by degrees. On the other hand, a language like Latin or ancient Greek, which is only written or printed and is not now spoken, no longer undergoes any change whatever, and is, consequently, known as a **dead language**.

4. **Periods in Development.**—All these changes in the character of our language have taken place gradually, so that no hard and fast lines can be drawn in dividing the history of the language into different periods. It is usual, however, to make three main divisions. The

English spoken and written previous to the Norman Conquest is known as **Old English** or **Anglo Saxon**; the period following the Norman Conquest is known as **Middle English**; and the period from the beginning of the sixteenth century to the present day, is known as **Modern English**.

But, notwithstanding these changes and names, it must always be kept in mind that the language we now speak and write is the direct descendant of the English spoken in the time of King Alfred a thousand years ago; for the structure of our sentences, and by far the larger number of our most common and needful words, are purely English.

5. Spoken English.—Besides the changes that took place at different periods, there are considerable differences in the language of English speakers even at the present day. Thus, every region has some peculiarities in the way in which its speakers use their English. There are, for example, the peculiarities of the English of Ireland and of Scotland, noticed by us in the Irish and the Scotch immigrants. And, in general, an Englishman can tell an American, and an American an Englishman, by the way he talks. When these peculiarities amount to so much that they begin to interfere with our understanding the persons who have them, we say that such persons speak a **dialect** of English, rather than English itself, which in contradistinction is known as **standard English**.

6. Good and Bad English.—There is also the difference between what we call **good English** and **bad** (or **vulgar**) **English**. By **good English** we mean those words and those meanings of them and those ways of putting them together, that are used generally by the best educated people of the present day; and **bad English** is, therefore, simply that which is not approved and

accepted by good and careful speakers and writers. Then, again, we find that good English, when spoken, differs slightly from the language of well-written books. In ordinary conversation we use, for instance, shortened forms of words, familiar expressions, and a loose arrangement of our sentences, which do not seem fitted for the higher kind of literature. We have in this way a classification of good English into standard **literary** English and standard **spoken** (or **colloquial**) English.

II. THE STUDY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

7. Meaning of English Grammar.—We have now seen that English has changed much from what it was at first, and that there are varieties of the English which is spoken even in the present day. When, however, we say simply “English,” we mean the standard English of our own times; and the systematic discussion of the good and approved usages of this English forms what we call **English Grammar**.

8. Why Studied.—English grammar is studied for a variety of purposes, of which correctness of expression is only one, and a secondary one—by no means unimportant, but best attained indirectly. It is constant practice, under never-failing watch and correction, that makes good writers and speakers. Grammar can help, but chiefly in the higher stages of the work. It must not be supposed, either, that the writer of a grammar makes the rules and laws for language; he only reports the facts of good language in an orderly way, so that they may be easily referred to, or learned.

Then, again, many of us want to learn other languages than English; or we want to learn other forms of English. Nor are we content with merely using language; we want to know something of what language is, and to realize what it is worth to us; for the study of language

has a great deal to tell about the history of man and of what he has done in the world—as, for instance, what we know of the Aryans. And, as language is the principal means by which the mind's operations are disclosed, we cannot study the mind's workings and its nature without a thorough understanding of language. For all these purposes, we need that knowledge of language and grammar to which the study of English grammar is the easiest and surest step.

9. Divisions of the Subject.—The discussion of English Grammar in this book includes:

(1) The description and classification of the different words we use in speaking and writing. This is known as **Etymology**. The term properly means “a discussion of the true source of a word”; but, by writers on language, its meaning has been extended to include the classification of words, the consideration of their changes of form, and the history of their growth.

(2) An account of the ways in which words are properly combined to express our thoughts and feelings. This is known as **Syntax**; the term literally means “a putting together.”

(3) An account of the **Sounds and Alphabet** of the language—how our spoken words are correctly sounded, and how they are represented by letters. Strictly speaking, this subject does not form part of Grammar, which, as the term is now generally understood, consists of Etymology and Syntax; but, as it is of importance in connection with a discussion of the formation of words, some knowledge of it is necessary.

In this Grammar these divisions will not be kept quite separate, but will be taken up in parts when it seems best for the presentation of the subject.

CHAPTER II

THE SENTENCE AND ITS ELEMENTS

I. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

10. **The Sentence: Subject and Predicate.**—Our ordinary speech, whether written or spoken, usually takes the form of statements which express judgments, or opinions, regarding persons or things; for example:

Flowers bloom;
Stars shine.

Such statements are known as **sentences**. Each of these sentences consists of two parts. One part represents the thing (*thing* means "what we can think of") about which we make the statement; this part is known as the **subject**. The other part expresses some fact regarding the thing named; this part is known as the **predicate**. Thus in the sentence, "Flowers bloom"; *Flowers* is the subject, and *bloom* is the predicate.

11. **Different Varieties of Sentences.**—Sentences such as,

Flowers bloom.
Stars shine;

are used to make assertions, and are therefore called **assertive sentences**. Frequently, however, instead of making an assertion, the sentence takes the form of a question or a command. Sometimes, too, we express our thoughts and feelings without using both subject and predicate, as when we shout "Fire!" or say "Good-bye." These different varieties of sentences and abbreviated forms of expression will, however, be fully considered in the following chapter. In the meantime,

when we speak of a sentence we mean the assertive sentence, containing both a subject and a predicate.

12. Definitions.—We may then define Sentence, Subject, and Predicate as follows:

A Sentence is the statement of a thought in language.

A Sentence is composed of two parts, Subject and Predicate.

The Subject signifies the thing about which the statement is made.

The Predicate signifies that which is asserted of the thing for which the subject stands.

13. Bare and Complete Subject and Predicate.—In such sentences as “Flowers bloom”; and “Stars shine”; the subject and the predicate consist, each, of a single word. In some sentences, however, the subject and the predicate consist of a number of words, as, for instance:

Wild <i>flowers</i>	<i>bloom</i> in the woods in spring;
The evening <i>star</i>	<i>shone</i> brightly in the sky;
A soft <i>answer</i>	<i>turneth</i> away wrath;
Coming <i>events</i>	<i>cast</i> their shadows before;
No braver <i>soldier</i>	ever <i>drew</i> a sword.

If we compare these sentences we shall find that in each case the subject contains some one word which directly names, or represents, the thing about which the assertion is made. This word is called the **bare subject**. Similarly each predicate contains some one word by means of which the assertion is made. This word is known as the **bare predicate**. In sentences such as the foregoing, where words have been added to the bare subject and the bare predicate in order to make the meaning more complete, the complete groups of words are known respectively as the **complete subject** and the **complete predicate**.

NOTE:—Either the bare subject or the bare predicate may consist of a *group of words* combined to express a single notion (*notion* means “any conception of the mind”), as in the following:

<i>To be wise</i>	is to be happy;
<i>What is done</i>	cannot be undone;
<i>The shades of night</i>	<i>were falling</i> fast.

EXERCISE 1

In each of the following sentences:

(a) *Point out the complete subject and the complete predicate.*

(b) *Underline the bare subject and the bare predicate.*

1. The snow falls.
2. Spring follows winter.
3. Still waters run deep.
4. Duty comes before pleasure.
5. Faint heart never won fair lady.
6. The quality of mercy is not strained.
7. I bring fresh showers for the thirsting flowers.
8. A merry heart maketh a cheerful countenance.
9. The ploughman homeward plods his weary way.
10. The best preparation for good work to-morrow is to do good work to-day.
11. A thing of beauty is a joy for ever.
12. The worst wheel of the cart makes the most noise.
13. Giving to the poor is lending to the Lord.
14. The beat of the alarming drum roused up the soldier ere the morning star.
15. A friend may well be reckoned the masterpiece of Nature.

14. **The Order of Words.**—In the sentences that we have considered thus far, the subject has always preceded the predicate. This is the usual order of words in English, but for reasons that will be explained hereafter, it frequently happens that the predicate, or some part of it, is placed before the subject; for example:

Into the valley of Death, rode the six hundred;

Silently one by one in the infinite meadows of Heaven blossomed the lovely stars.

EXERCISE 2

In each of the following sentences:

(a) Point out the complete subject and the complete predicate.

(b) Underline the bare subject and the bare predicate.

1. Colder and louder blew the wind.
 2. Stone walls do not a prison make.
 3. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
 4. At the dead of the night a sweet vision I saw.
 5. A man he was to all the country dear.
 6. Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear.
 7. Never had master a more humble, docile pupil.
 8. From the dull ground the violet gathers up her tender
blue.
 9. Thine are the cattle upon a thousand hills.
 10. Higher still and higher from the earth thou springest.
 11. Still more majestic shalt thou rise,
More dreadful, from each foreign stroke.
 12. Lightly and brightly breaks away
The morning from her mantle gray.
 13. No more surveying with an eye impartial
The long line of the coast,
Shall the gaunt figure of the old field-marshal
Be seen upon his post.
 14. Here rests his head upon the lap of earth
A youth to fortune and to fame unknown.
 15. Out of the bosom of the air,
Out of the cloud-folds of her garments shaken,
Over the woodlands brown and bare,
Over the harvest-fields forsaken,
Silent and soft and slow
Descends the snow.
15. **Different Functions of Words.**—We have already seen that in the sentence,

Flowers bloom;

the words *Flowers* and *bloom* have different functions to perform. We shall now consider what different uses words ordinarily have in the sentence, that is, into what classes they may be divided according to their use.

II. NOUN, PRONOUN, AND VERB

16. The Noun, Pronoun, and Verb.—We have seen that every assertive sentence must have a subject and a predicate, and that the bare subject and the bare predicate are essential parts of the assertion. The bare subject in any sentence is always either the name of something, or a word used to represent the name of something. A word used as the name of anything is called a **noun**, (*noun* means “name”) or **substantive**. [The term *substantive* (Lat. *substare*, “to be present”) implies the existence of the object represented by the noun.] Some nouns, as *boy*, *paper*, *water*, are the names of things we can perceive by the senses. Others, again, as *weight*, *roundness*, *beauty*, *courage*, are names of qualities which we think of as having an existence apart from the objects possessing them. These are all names, and they are all alike nouns. Hence we have the definition:

A noun is a word used in a sentence as the name of any thing.

17. The Verb.—The bare predicate in any sentence is called a **verb**. (*Verb* means “word,” a word so used having been looked upon as the chief part of the sentence.)

We may therefore define the verb as follows:

A verb is a word by means of which we make an assertion, and hence, that stands alone, or with other words, as predicate of a sentence.

18. The Pronoun.—If we were always forced to name the things that we speak about, many of our sentences would be very clumsy. Accordingly we frequently make use of a certain special class of words to stand for persons or things. For instance, instead of saying,

George has read this book;

we say,

He has read it;

provided that the reference of *he* and *it* is clearly understood. Or if George is speaking of himself, he may say,

I have read it;

or in addressing George we may say to him,

You have read it.

Similarly we may point to a person whom we do not know, and say,

He is a stranger;

or

That is a stranger;

or we may ask such a question as,

Who lives in this house?

or we may say,

"*Some one* lives here."

Such words as *I*, *you*, *he*, *that*, *who*, and *some one*, as used in the foregoing sentences, are called **pronouns**. (*Pronoun* means "standing for a noun," and this was once supposed to be its characteristic use). Pronouns, then, are simply additional means of representing things. They do not name them as nouns do, but they point them out where circumstances show plainly to what they relate.

We shall find that the same pronoun may be used for a great many different kinds of things. For instance, any person may speak of himself as *I*, we may address any person as *you*, and we may speak of any object without life as *it*. Consequently, while there

are thousands of ordinary nouns, or names, there are only a few pronouns; but they are used oftener than any nouns.

We may then define the pronoun as follows:

A pronoun is a word which, without naming them, is used to represent persons or things.

EXERCISE 3

Classify the italicized words in the following sentences as nouns, pronouns, or verbs:

1. The curfew *tolls* the *knell* of parting day.
2. Mont Blanc is the *monarch* of mountains;
They crowned *him* long ago.
3. Life is *what* you *make* it. Take it up bravely, *bear* it cheerfully, and lay *it* down triumphantly.
4. *She* was a phantom of delight,
When first she *gleamed* upon my *sight*.
5. *England*, with all thy *faults* I love *thee* still.
6. The man *that* hath no music in *himself*
Is fit for *treasons*, stratagems, and spoils.
7. Many people *know* the value of a dollar *who* do not appreciate a hundred cents.
8. O *Solitude*, where are the charms
That sages *have seen* in thy face?
9. As he *approached* the village he met a *number* of people, but *none* whom he knew, *which* somewhat surprised him, for he had thought *himself* acquainted with *every one* in the country round.
10. *Break! break! break!*
On thy cold, gray stones, O *Sea!*
And I *would* that my tongue could utter
The thoughts *that* arise in *me*.
11. He that cannot forgive *others* breaks the bridge over *which* he *himself* must pass.
12. O blest *retirement!* friend to life's *decline*,
Retreat from care *that* never must be mine;
How blest is he *who* crowns in shades like *these*
A youth of *labour* with an *age* of ease.

III. COMPLETION OF THE VERB

19. Complete Verbs.—In the sentences:

Children play;
They sing;

the verbs *play* and *sing* in themselves form complete predicates, and in each sentence the verb expresses some fact about the thing represented by the subject, without the addition of any other word.

20. Incomplete Predication. — There are, however, some verbs in English which are very rarely used alone as predicates. Thus in, "He is wise"; and "He becomes wise"; *is* and *becomes* are the bare predicates and are completed by *wise*; and there could in neither sentence be a complete assertion without *wise* or some other word used in a similar way. Verbs of this class are known as verbs of incomplete predication, *i.e.*, verbs which by themselves do not make a complete assertion about the thing for which the subject stands.

21. Verbs Completed by an Object.—But besides these verbs, there are a large number of others which are sometimes incomplete in another way. Most verbs expressing action call for the addition of a word to express something on which the action is exerted; thus, for example,

I strike.....;
She folds.....;
The man wrote.....;
They saw.....;

where we expect an addition telling what is *struck*, or *folded*, or *written*, or *seen*; and the sense is completed in some such way as this:

I strike the table;
She folds the paper;
The man wrote a letter;
They saw me.

Such an added word is always the name of something, as *table*, *paper*, *letter*, or a word like *me*, by which we know what thing is meant; and it is called the **object** of the verb, because it signifies that upon which the action is exerted.

EXERCISE 4

Classify the verbs in the following sentences as:

- (a) *Verbs which require no completion.*
- (b) *Verbs of incomplete predication.*
- (c) *Verbs completed by an object.*

1. The rain falls.
2. The rose is a beautiful flower.
3. Clouds darken the sky.
4. Evil communications corrupt good manners.
5. Long with his dagger's hilt he played.
6. The course of true love never did run smooth.
7. Quick believers need broad shoulders.
8. A chieftain's daughter seemed the maid.
9. All the air a solemn stillness holds.
10. On either side the river, lie
 Long fields of barley and of rye.
11. Cease to do evil; learn to do well.
12. Absence makes the heart grow fonder.
13. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate.
14. A foot more light, a step more true,
 Ne'er from the heath-flower dashed the dew.
15. There in the twilight cold and gray,
 Lifeless, but beautiful, he lay.

IV. ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB

We have next to consider two other kinds of words which do not by themselves form either subjects, or predicates, or objects of verbs.

- 22. The Adjective.**—In the sentence,
 Water quenches thirst;

for instance, we use the word *water* in the most general sense. If, however, we wish to limit the application of the word *water* more particularly, we add to it other words, as in the expressions:

The water;

Pure water;

and furthermore, if we have made it quite definite to what thing the word refers, we may add still other words to further describe the thing or to draw attention to some fact regarding it, as,

The pure, sparkling water.

A word which is thus added to a noun or pronoun in order to limit its application or to describe the object for which it stands, is called an **adjective**. (*Adjective* means "something added.") When an adjective is added to a noun, as in the expression, *Pure water*, the adjective and noun together express a different idea from that expressed by the noun alone. The adjective is therefore said to **modify** the noun. (*Modify* here means "to change the meaning of"; that is, the meaning of the noun and adjective together is different from the meaning of the noun alone.) We may then define the adjective as follows:

An adjective is a word that is used to modify a noun or a pronoun. We may further define it by saying that it is used to limit the application of the noun or pronoun, or to describe the thing for which the noun or pronoun stands.

23. The Adverb.—But the noun is not the only kind of word that may take a modifier. Instead of saying,

He calls;

we may say,

He calls *loudly*;

or,

He calls *often*.

In these sentences *loudly* and *often* are joined to the verb in such a way as to make the meaning of the expression more definite. A word which is thus joined to the verb to modify its meaning is called an **adverb**. (*Adverb* means "added to a verb.") Adverbs are generally used to tell something about the time, place, or manner, of the action expressed in the verb; thus,

I saw him *yesterday*; (*time*)

He is living *here*; (*place*)

He walked very *slowly*; (*manner*).

But besides the adverbs which modify the verb, there are certain others which are generally attached to adjectives or to other adverbs to make the expression more definite.

For instance, instead of saying,

A loud voice;

we may say,

A *very* loud voice;

and instead of saying,

He talks loudly;

we may say,

He talks *very* loudly.

Here the word *very* modifies, in the first instance, an adjective, and in the second, an adverb. Adverbs which modify adjectives or other adverbs, generally express measure or degree.

Besides the adverbs which we have considered, we shall find hereafter that there are certain others which may be attached also to other classes of words in the sentence, or to the sentence as a whole; but for the present we may define the adverb as follows:

An adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

EXERCISE 5

Classify the italicized words in the following sentences as adjectives or adverbs:

1. A bully is *always* a coward.
2. At the dead of the night a *sweet* vision I saw,
And *thrice* ere the morning I dreamt it *again*.
3. Flow *gently*, sweet Afton, among thy *green* braes.
4. Against stupidity the *very* gods themselves contend in
vain.
5. O that *those* lips had language! Life has passed
But *roughly* with me since I heard thee *last*.
6. Talk *not* of *wasted* affection; affection *never* was wasted.
7. No *truly* great man *ever* thought himself *great*.
8. Comfort is *tedious* when it lasts *too* long.
9. A *thin* meadow is *soon* mowed.
10. A sunny spirit *quickly* dispels *angry* frowns.
11. I *never* was on the *dull*, tame shore,
But I loved the great Sea *more* and more,
And *backwards* flew to her *billowy* breast.
12. Look, love, *what* envious streaks
Do lace the severing clouds in *yonder* east!
Night's candles are burnt *out*, and *jocund* day
Stands *tiptoe* on the misty mountain tops.
13. Charity suffereth *long* and is *kind*.
14. *Once*, upon a *raw* and gusty day,
The troubled Tiber chafing with *her* shores,
Cæsar said to me, "Dar'st thou, Cassius, *now*
Leap *in* with me into *this* angry flood
And swim to *yonder* point?"
15. *There* at the foot of yonder nodding beech
That wreathes its old *fantastic* roots so high,
His listless length at noontide would he stretch,
And pore upon the brook that babbles *by*.

EXERCISE 6

Arrange the italicized words in the following passage into three columns, according as they modify (a) nouns, or pronouns, (b) verbs, (c) adjectives or adverbs:

I ought before this to have replied to your *very* kind invitation into Cumberland. With you and *your* sister I could gang

anywhere. But I am *afraid* whether I shall *ever* be *able* to afford *so desperate* a journey. *Separate* from the pleasure of *your* company, I don't *much* care if I *never* see a mountain in my life. I have passed *all* my days in London, until I have formed *as many* and intense *local* attachments as any of you mountaineers can have done with *dead* nature. The lighted shops of the Strand and *Fleet* Street, the *innumerable* trades, tradesmen and customers, coaches, wagons, playhouses, all the bustle and wickedness round about Covent Garden, the *very* women of the town, the watchmen, *drunken* scenes, rattles, —life *awake*, if you awake, at *all* hours of the night, the impossibility of being dull in Fleet Street, the crowds, the very dirt and mud, the sun *shining* upon houses and pavements, the *print* shops, the *old* book-stalls, persons cheap'ning books, *coffee* houses, steams of soups from kitchens, the pantomimes, London itself a pantomime and a masquerade,—all *these* things work themselves into my mind and feed me without a power of satiating me. The wonder of these sights impels me into *night*-walks about her crowded streets, and I *often* shed tears in the *motley* Strand from fulness of joy at *so much* Life. All these emotions must be *strange* to you. *So* are your *rural* emotions to me. But consider, what must I have been doing all my life, not to have lent *great* portions of my heart with usury to such scenes?

V. PREPOSITION AND CONJUNCTION

24. The Preposition.—We noticed above, two of the uses of the noun or pronoun, those of serving as subject of a sentence or as object of a verb. Now we have to notice that a combination of words made up of a noun or a pronoun and such a word as *of*, *to*, *from*, or *by*, which connects it with another noun, or with a verb, adjective, or adverb, may be used like an adjective to modify this other noun or pronoun; or, like an adverb, to modify the verb, adjective, or adverb.

For instance, in the sentence,

The towers *of the city* rise *in the distance*;

the group of words *of the city* tells what *towers*, and *in the distance* tells where they *rise*. The first group of words is used in this sentence with the value of an adjective, the second with the value of an adverb.

Such connecting words as *of* and *in*, in the foregoing sentence, are called **prepositions**. (*Preposition* means "placed before," the name having been applied originally to adverbs placed before verbs to make other verbs, as in *withstand*, *outrun*, *underlie*.)

The preposition is, in fact, usually placed before the noun or pronoun which it is to connect to another word. Frequently, however, in all styles of English—in poetry, and in prose, both spoken and written—the preposition does not precede; thus, for instance,

To wander earth *around*;
Search the whole world *over*;
What did you come *for*?

We then have the definition:

A preposition is a word which joins a noun or pronoun to some other word, and shows the relation between the notions they express.

25. The Conjunction.—But not only have we a class of words to join together other words and show the relations between the notions they express; we have also a class of words which join together sentences and show the relations between the thoughts they express. Thus in,

He went *and* I came;

we join together the thoughts or judgments expressed by *He went* and *I came*, by means of *and*; that is, we thus join together two sentences. So also, *but* connects the sentences in,

We spoke, *but* they said nothing.

NOTE:—As we shall see later, (45), any group of words consisting of a subject and a predicate, which goes to form

part of a larger sentence, is known as a *clause*; that is, "He spoke" and "they said nothing" are clauses which form the sentence "He spoke, but they said nothing."

But, besides connecting different sentences, a few of the most common words of this class, especially *and*, are used to connect, in the same sentence, other combinations of words (not consisting of a subject and a predicate), called *phrases*, that are used in the same way in the sentence; also single words that are used in the same way in the sentence; thus,

A man of bad character, *but* of great ability;
The hills *and* the valleys are covered with snow.

And and *but* in these sentences are called **conjunctions**. (*Conjunction* means "something that *conjoins* or joins together.")

And since the sentences, and the words and groups of words joined by *and* and *but* are of equal rank and have the same grammatical value, they are said to be **co-ordinate**, (*co-ordinate* means "equal in rank"), and the conjunctions *and* and *but* as here used are said to be **co-ordinative**.

But, besides the conjunctions which are used in the same way as *and* and *but* in the foregoing sentences, there are other conjunctions which connect members of a sentence in a different way. For instance, in the sentence,

I will see him when I go;

the clause "when I go" is used as an adverb modifying *will see*, and *when* is the word by means of which the relation between my seeing him and my going is shown. In this sentence the clause "when I go" is said to be **subordinate** (*subordinate* means "lower in rank") to the main statement "I will see him," and the conjunction *when* is said to be **subordinative**.

We have, then, the following definition:

A conjunction is a word which connects sentences; or

phrases or words that are used in the same way in a sentence ; or which shows the relation between a subordinate clause and some part of another clause.

EXERCISE 7

Classify the italicized words in the following sentences as prepositions or conjunctions:

1. She walks *in* beauty *like* the night
Of cloudless climes *and* starry skies.
2. He says *that* he will be back in an hour, *but* we cannot wait *for* him.
3. The rainbow comes *and* goes,
And lovely is the rose;
The moon doth *with* delight
Look round her *when* the heavens are bare;
Waters, *on* a starry night,
Are beautiful and fair.
4. *Before* yet any woodchuck or squirrel had run *across* the road, or the sun had got above the shrub-oaks, *while* all the dew was on, *though* the farmers warned me *against* it, I began to level the ranks of haughty weeds *in* my bean-field and throw dust *upon* their heads.
5. *On* a lone winter evening, *when* the frost
Has wrought a silence, *from* the stove there shrills
The cricket's song, *in* warmth increasing ever.
6. Thou soft flowing Avon, *by* thy silver stream,
Of things more than mortal sweet Shakespeare would dream;
The fairies by moonlight dance *round* his green bed,
For hallowed the turf is, which pillowed his head.

26. **Parts of Speech.**—From the foregoing it is evident that each word in the sentence plays a certain part in the expression of the thought, or, in other words, in our speech. Accordingly we speak of each word in the sentence as being a **part of speech**, and when two or more words have a similar value in the sentence we say that they are the same part of speech. Further-

more, as we shall see hereafter, a *group of words* sometimes performs a single function in the sentence, and may therefore be considered as a single part of speech; for example:

He did not come till *after dinner*; (noun).

VI. DIFFERENT VALUES OF THE SAME WORD

27. Grammatical Value Depends Upon Function.—

From what has been said of the parts of speech, it is clear that the grammatical value of a word depends upon the function it performs in a sentence. We shall now see that the same word may have different grammatical values; thus, in the sentences,

You *wrong* me;
This is the *wrong* house;
He has suffered *wrong*;

the word *wrong* is used as a verb, as an adjective, and as a noun, respectively; and in the sentences,

They can *but* die;
I saw none *but* him;
They tried *but* failed;

the word *but* is used respectively as an adverb, as a preposition, and as a conjunction.

Our general conclusion then, is as follows:

To determine the part of speech of any word we must know how it is used in the sentence.

EXERCISE 8

State the part of speech of the italicized words in each of the following groups:

1. *Iron* is a useful metal.
He slowly raised the *iron* bar.
Iron my coat for me, if you please.
2. *That* picture won the first prize.
Whatsoever a man soweth, *that* shall he also reap.

3. I bring fresh showers *for* the thirsting flowers.
Fear not, *for* I am with thee.
4. He looked around, *but* could see nothing *but* a crow
winging its solitary flight across the mountain.
5. Now who will stand on *either* hand
And keep the bridge with me?
Bring me a club or a hatchet; *either* will do.
6. Look *before* you leap.
He warmed his hands *before* the fire.
7. *Now* is the accepted time.
The loud wind never reached the ship;
Yet *now* the ship moved on.
8. Sir, thou hast nothing to draw with, and the *well* is deep.
Springs of pure water *well* up from the ground.
Well water is not so pure as rain water.
9. Now, gallant Saxon, hold thine own;
No maiden's hand is *round* thee thrown.
Sir Launcelot was a Knight of the *Round* Table.
The sheep dogs soon *round* up the flocks.
10. *Enough* is as good as a feast.
Gossip *enough* have I heard, yet in sooth am never the
wiser.
I have lived long *enough*; my way of life
Is fallen into the sear, the yellow leaf.

28. **Three Divisions of the Parts of Speech.**—The seven parts of speech which we have described fall naturally into three main divisions:

1. The three independent parts of speech, the Noun, the Pronoun, and the Verb, which are capable of forming sentences without others;

2. The two modifiers, the Adjective and the Adverb, which are always attached to some other word, or words, which they modify;

3. The two connectives, the Preposition and the Conjunction, which join one word, or phrase, or sentence, to another, and sometimes show the relation between them.

Note:—The General Exercise at the end of the chapter will afford further practice in distinguishing the parts of speech.

VII. WORDS USED WITH DOUBLE FUNCTIONS

But not all words can be classified as simple parts of speech. Words, or groups of words, are sometimes used to perform double functions in the sentence.

The following are the most important instances in which words are used with double functions:

29. Noun and Adjective.—In the expressions,

A *forest* path;
A Sunday *afternoon* walk;

the words *forest* and *afternoon* are used as adjectives. But although they are used as adjectives to modify nouns, they are still the names of objects and retain to some extent their value as nouns.

Conversely in the sentences,

Blest are the *pure* in heart;
Ring out the *old*, ring in the new;

the words *pure* and *old* are used as nouns. They differ from the ordinary noun, however, in that they are commonly used as adjectives.

30. Noun and Adverb.—In the sentences,

They live *miles* apart;
This tree is a *century* old;

the words *miles* and *century* are used as adverbs. But although they are used as adverbs they are still the names of objects and retain to some extent their value as nouns.

Similarly in the sentences,

What better is he for it?
He is not quite *that* tall;

the words *What* and *that* are used as adverbs; but they differ from ordinary adverbs in that they are generally used as pronouns.

31. Noun and Verb.—In the sentences,

Teaching is his profession ;

He desires *to teach*;

the words *teaching* and *to teach* are used as nouns; but they are derived from the verb *teach*, and may be used with some of the functions of the verb. They may, for instance, take objects and have adverbs as modifiers, as in the sentences,

Teaching music is his profession;

He desires *to teach in the city*.

Words which are used in this way are called **verbal nouns**, or **infinitives**.

NOTE:—As we shall see later (236) the infinitive has three forms; thus, *give*, *to give*, *giving*. The form *to give* is called the **gerundial infinitive**, and the form *giving* is called the **gerund**.

32. Adjective and Verb.—In the sentences,

A rolling stone gathers no moss;

Time *lost* can never be restored;

the words *rolling* and *lost* are used as adjectives, but they are derived from the verbs *roll* and *lose*, and as in the case of the infinitives, they may be used with some of the functions of the verb. Words which are used in this way are called **verbal adjectives**, or **participles**.

NOTE:—As we shall see later (241) the participle has two forms, one ending in *ing*, the other ending in *ed*, *d*, *t*, or *en*; thus, *giving*, *given*. The form *giving* is called the **imperfect** participle, and the form *given* is called the **perfect** participle.

33. Adjective and Adverb.—In the sentences,

The wind blows *keen*;

The bell rings *loud*;

the words *keen* and *loud* tell the quality of the thing represented by the subject, and also of the action represented by the verb. They modify both subject and verb, and partake, therefore, of the nature of both adjective and adverb. Such words may be called **adverbial (predicate) adjectives**.

34. Pronoun and Adjective.—In the sentences,

Here are *my* horses and hounds;
The storm had spent *its* fury;

the words *my* and *its* are used as adjectives; but they are also pronominal, since they stand for persons or things. Words which are used in this way are called **pronominal adjectives**.

35. Pronoun and Conjunction.—In the sentences,

The soul is dead *that* slumbers;
The book *which* I borrowed is lost;

the words *that* and *which* perform double functions. They are pronouns, but at the same time they are conjunctions and join clauses (25). Words which are used in this way are called **conjunctive pronouns**.

In such a sentence as,

This is the house *where* I was born;

where is equivalent to *in which*, and so combines in itself the functions of three parts of speech, **conjunction**, **pronoun**, and **adverb**.

36. Adjective and Conjunction.—In the sentences,

I do not know *which* train I shall take;
Have you heard *what* tidings he brings?

the words *which* and *what* perform double functions. They are adjectives, but at the same time they are conjunctions and join clauses (25). Words which are used in this way are called **conjunctive adjectives**.

37. Adverb and Conjunction.—In the sentences,

I shall see you *when* I return;
The wind bloweth *where* it listeth;

the words *when* and *where* not only join clauses as conjunctions, but are used as adverbs to modify the verbs following. Words which are used in this way, are called **conjunctive adverbs**.

EXERCISE 9

In the following sentences point out the functions of the italicized words:

1. None but the *brave* deserves the fair.
2. Wise men employ *their* talents rightly.
3. The steersman's face by his lamp gleamed *white*.
4. I know a bank *whereon* the wild thyme grows.
5. He hath put down the *mighty* from their seat.
6. He lay like a warrior *taking* his rest.
7. Never count your chickens *before* they are hatched.
8. Last *night* the moon had a golden ring.
9. They *that* sow in tears shall reap in joy.
10. The moon rose o'er the city,
Behind the dark *church* tower.
11. *Parting* is such sweet sorrow
That I shall say good-night till it be morrow.
12. A time there was, ere England's griefs began,
When every rood of ground maintained its man.

VIII. WORDS USED WITH SPECIAL OR PECULIAR FUNCTIONS

38. Weakened Parts of Speech.—In addition to the classes of words already mentioned, there are a number of words which are sometimes used with special or peculiar functions. In the sentence,

There came to the beach a poor exile of Erin;

There, which is generally an adverb meaning "in that place," is used as an almost meaningless introductory word to fill up the place left vacant by the transposed subject; for it would seem strange to say in ordinary speech,

Came to the beach a poor exile of Erin;

although this sentence contains all that is really necessary,—a subject and a predicate.

The word *there* when used in this way, to fill out the sentence, is known as an **expletive**, (*ex*, "out," *pleo*, "I fill").

Similarly, just as the word *there* in this sentence no longer retains its adverbial value, so the word *it* no longer retains its full value as a pronoun in such sentences as,

It rains;
It is a fine day;
What time is *it*?
How are you making *it* go?

In these sentences *it* does not represent any definite thing; yet it is not purely an expletive, since it does duty as subject or object of the verb.

39. Particles.—In the sentence,

Only brave men could act thus;

the word *only* cannot be classed as a regular part of speech, since it is used not to modify the meaning of the noun, but rather to limit our attention exclusively to the notion for which the expression *brave men* stands.

Words of this class whose uses are in some measure akin to those of adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, or conjunctions, but which have scarcely enough value to be classified as parts of speech, are known as **particles**. (*Particle* means "little part.")

Other examples are:

He did this *as* a precaution;
Bless me, *even* me, O my father;
You will be well taken care *of*.

40. Words Used as Substitutes.—In such sentences as,

The weather is fine and I hope that it will remain *so*;
I do not know him, but my brother *does*;

the words *so* and *does* are used to represent some preceding word or words in the sentence or in preceding sentences, much in the same way as pronouns are used to represent nouns. In the first sentence *so* is used as a substitute for the adjective *fine*, and in the second

sentence *does* is used as a substitute for the verb *knows* with its object *him*. The function of a substitute is the same as the function of the word for which it stands, and as there are comparatively few of such substitutes, no special name is given to them as a class.

41. Interjections.—When we wish to express strong feeling we sometimes make use of exclamations such as,

Oh! Ah! Fie! Pshaw! Fudge!

These exclamations are sometimes used in the body of a sentence, and hence they have been called **interjections**. (*Interjection* means “something that is interjected,” that is, “thrown into the midst of” the other parts of speech.) Each interjection is, in a certain way, a kind of sentence by itself. It is a direct expression of feeling or of will, and is made expressive chiefly by the tone, the inflection of voice, with which it is uttered. Thus, for example, the interjection *Ah!* expresses a number of different feelings, such as joy, pain, surprise, disgust, according to the way in which it is uttered.

42. Responsives.—We have seen that the interjection is practically equivalent to a complete sentence in itself. In some of their uses the words,

Yes, No, Yea, Nay,

express strong feeling, and have the value of interjections. In their ordinary uses, however, these words are used in answer to questions, and merely affirm or deny, without giving expression to any feeling. In answer to such a question as, “Do you live here?” the word *Yes* is equivalent to the sentence,

I do live here;

and the word *No* has a similar use. When used in this way the words *Yes, No, Yea, Nay*, are known as **responsives**.

NOTE:—Besides the interjections and responsives there are a few other words, such as *Amen!* *Adieu!* which in some of their uses are equivalent to complete sentences. These words when so used may be described as **sentence words**.

EXERCISE 10

Classify the italicized words in the following as: (a) expletives or weakened parts of speech, (b) particles, (c) substitutes, (d) interjections, or (e) responsives, or sentence words.

1. What is *it* o'clock?
2. He sings better than his cousin *does*.
3. *Oh*, to be in England now that April's there!
4. *Even* a fool, when he holdeth his peace, is counted wise.
5. Thine is the kingdom and the power and the glory for ever. *Amen*.
6. Be it ever so humble, *there's* no place like home.
7. *Hark*, the herald angels sing!
8. '*Sdeath!* I'll print it, and shame the fools!
9. "*Oho*," thought I, "This, then, is my uncle from India."
"Yes, it is," now spoke my visitor extraordinary, in a harsh, gruff voice.
10. "*Well*," she concluded, "*There's* one comfort; he doesn't care a cent for me."
11. I cannot walk as fast as you *do*.
12. *It* was morning on hill and stream and tree,
And morning in the young knight's heart.
13. "You must be getting old, Uncle Peter," said I. "*Oh, no*," he answered, "I am *only* growing up."
14. Por. You stand within his danger, *do* you not?
Ant. *Ay*, so he says.
15. "I hope," said Nelson, "none of our ships have struck." Hardy answered that *there* was no fear of that. Then, and not till then, Nelson spoke of himself. "I am a dead man, Hardy," said he, "I am going fast; *it* will be all over with me soon." Hardy observed that he hoped Mr. Beatty could yet hold out some prospect of life. "*Oh, no*," he replied, "it is impossible. Beatty will tell you *so*."

IX. PHRASES

43. Combinations of Words.—In considering the different uses of words in the sentence we have already pointed out that groups of words are sometimes used with the values of single parts of speech (26). On further consideration we shall see that these groups of words may be divided into two main classes, those which contain a subject and a predicate, and those which do not.

44. Phrases and their Values.—A combination of words, not consisting of a subject and a predicate, but having the value of a single part of speech, is called a **phrase**. All of the parts of speech may of course be represented by phrases. That is, we have noun phrases, pronoun phrases, adjective phrases, etc.

The following are examples:

1. Nouns:

He came from *over the sea*; *Too swift* arrives as tardy as *too slow*.

2. Pronouns:

They love *one another*; They spoke to *each other*.

3. Adjectives:

The house *on yonder hill*; The war *between Spain and the United States*.

4. Verbs:

I shall be going; *I have gone*; *May you be happy*.

5. Adverbs:

The house stood *on yonder hill*; He did it *by himself*.

6. Prepositions:

He went *by way of* Montreal; He will go *instead of* me.

7. Conjunctions:

He, *as well as* I, went; He went *as soon as* I had gone.

We add, then, the definition:

A phrase is a combination of two or more words (not consisting of a subject and predicate) having in a sentence the value of a single word or part of speech.

EXERCISE 11

Select the phrases in the following sentences and state their values:

1. Under the spreading chestnut tree the village smithy stands.
2. I have been waiting for you since noon.
3. The sun from the western horizon extended his golden wand o'er the landscape.
4. Over the fence is out.
5. I am going by way of New York.
6. The man with a violin is a bore to the man with a flute.
7. The finest edge is made with a blunt whetstone.
8. I will tell you on condition that you keep the secret.
9. Listen to what I say.
10. It more than rained yesterday.
11. Out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh.
12. He did not many mighty works there because of their unbelief.
13. This is my commandment, that ye love one another.
14. Every event in human affairs has a beginning, and a beginning implies a when and a where, and a by whom and a how.
15. How pleasantly the shadows of the wood fall upon our heads when we turn from the glitter and turmoil of the world of man! The winds of heaven seem to linger amid their balmy branches, and the sunshine falls like a blessing upon the green leaves; the wild breath of the forest, fragrant with bark and berry, fans the brow with grateful freshness; and the beautiful woodlight, neither garish nor gloomy, full of calm and peaceful influences, sheds repose over the spirit.

X. SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

45. Clauses, Principal and Subordinate.—Any group of words consisting of subject and predicate and forming part of a larger sentence is known as a **clause** (25). Clauses are of two kinds, **principal** and **subordinate**.

A sentence which, though joined to another sentence to make a larger one, still retains its value as an independent statement, is known as a **principal clause**; thus,

*The flowers bloomed, and the birds sang;
Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers.*

NOTE:—Strictly speaking, a *principal* clause is one which has another clause *subordinate* to it, and in this sense of the term, the clauses in the above sentences cannot be called *principal*, but should rather be described as *independent*. But this distinction between the terms “principal” and “independent” is not of great importance; and as the use of different terms might lead to some confusion, we shall use the name *principal* throughout.

46. Subordinate Clauses.—When, however, the group of words consisting of subject and predicate forms part of another clause, and is equivalent to another word or part of speech in the sentence, it is said to be a **subordinate clause** (25); (*subordinate* means “lower in rank,” that is, it is subordinate to the clause in which it stands as a part of speech); thus,

*This is the house where I live;
When the sun rose the clouds dispersed.*

We add then, the definition:

A combination of words having a subject and a predicate and having the value in the sentence of a single part of speech is known as a subordinate clause.

47. Their Values.—Subordinate clauses can be used only with the values of nouns, adjectives, and adverbs, and when so used they are known respectively as **noun clauses**, **adjective clauses**, and **adverb clauses**. The following are examples:

1. Noun:

*He little knew how much he wronged her;
That you have wronged me doth appear in this;*

in which the italicized parts are nouns, object and subject respectively of the verbs *knew* and *doth appear*.

2. Adjective:

Each thought of the woman *who loved him best*;
 The place *where they lived* knows them no more;

in which the italicized parts are adjectives, modifying *woman* and *place* respectively.

3. Adverb:

They trimmed their lamps *as the sun went down*;
 Yet, *ere we part*, one lesson I can leave you;

in which the italicized parts are adverbs, modifying the verbs *trimmed* and *can* respectively.

EXERCISE 12

Select the subordinate clauses in the following passage, and state the part of speech to which each is equivalent:

I wish the good old times would come again, when we were not quite so rich. I do not mean that I want to be poor, but there was a middle state, in which, I am sure, we were a great deal happier. A purchase is but a purchase, now that you have money enough and to spare. Formerly it used to be a triumph. When we coveted a cheap luxury (and, O how much ado I had to get you to consent in those times!) we were used to have a debate two or three days before, and to weigh the for and against, and think what we might spare it out of, and what saving we could hit upon that should be an equivalent. A thing was worth buying then, when we felt the money that we paid for it.

EXERCISE 13

Show whether the italicized expressions in the following passage are phrases or subordinate clauses, and state the part of speech to which each is equivalent:

I *don't know* anything sweeter than *this leaking in of Nature* through all the cracks in the walls and floors of cities. You heap up a million tons of *hewn rocks* on a square mile or two of earth *which was green once*. The trees look down *from the hillsides* and ask each other, *as they stand on tiptoe*, "What

are these people about?" And the small herbs *at their feet* look up and whisper back, "We *will go* and see." So the small herbs pack themselves up *in the least possible bundles*, and wait *until the wind steals to them at night* and whispers, "Come with me." Then they go softly with it *into the great city*,—one to a cleft in the pavement, one to a spout *on the roof*, one to a seam in the marbles over a rich gentleman's bones, and one to the grave without a stone, *where nothing but a man is buried*,—and there they grow, looking down on the generations of men from mouldy roofs, looking up *from between* the less-trodden pavements, looking out *through iron cemetery-railings*. Listen to them, *when there is only a light breath stirring*, and you will hear them saying to *each other*,—"Wait awhile!" The words run *along the telegraph* of those narrow green lines *that border the roads leading from the city*, until they reach the slope of the hills, and the trees repeat in low murmurs to each other,—"Wait awhile!" *By and by* the flow of life in the streets ebbs and the old, leafy inhabitants—the smaller tribes always in front—saunter in, *one by one*, very careless seemingly, but very tenacious, until they swarm *so that the great stones gape from each other* with the crowding of their roots, and the feldspar begins to be picked out of the granite to find them food. *At last* the trees take up their solemn line of march, and never rest until they *have encamped* in the market place. Wait long enough and you will find an old dotting oak hugging a huge, worn block *in its yellow underground arms*! That was the corner-stone *of the State-House*. Oh, so patient she is, this imperturbable Nature!

48. **Summary.**—We may now sum up the result of our classification of the different elements of the sentence according to use, as follows:

1. Words which are used as regular parts of speech:—noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, and conjunction.

2. Words which are used with the functions of more than one part of speech.

3. Words with special or peculiar functions:—weakened parts of speech, particles, substitutes, interjections, and responsives.

GENERAL EXERCISE

Name the part of speech of each of the words in the following passages. The italicized groups of words should be taken together.

1. The snow *had begun* in the gloaming,
And busily, all the night,
Had been heaping field and highway
With a silence deep and white.

Every pine and fir and hemlock
Wore ermine too dear for an earl,
And the poorest twig on the elm-tree
Was ridged inch-deep with pearl.

2. In Scotland they have narrow open ditches which they call sheep-drains. A man *was* one day *riding* a donkey across a sheep-pasture. When the animal came to a sheep-drain he would not go over it. So the man rode him back a short distance, turned him round, and began to use the whip sharply. He thought that when the donkey *was going* at full speed he *would jump* the drain before he knew it; but when the creature came to the drain he stopped all at once and the rider *was thrown* over his head right across the drain. The man got up quickly and called out to the beast, "That *was* very well *pitched*, but how *are you going* to get over?"

3. I travelled among unknown men
In lands beyond the sea;
Nor, England! *did I know* till then
What love I bore to thee.

'Tis past, that melancholy dream!
Nor *will I quit* thy shore
A second time; for still I seem
To love thee more and more.

Among thy mountains *did* I *feel*
 The joy of my desire;
 And she I cherished turned her wheel
 Beside an English fire.

Thy mornings showed, thy nights conceal'd,
 The bowers where Lucy played;
 And thine, too, is the last green field
 That Lucy's eyes surveyed.

4. I was afraid of ships. Why, I could never tell. The masts looked frightfully tall,—but they were not so tall as the steeple of our old yellow meeting-house. At any rate, I used to hide my eyes from the sloops and schooners that were wont to lie at the end of the bridge, and I confess that traces of this undefined terror lasted very long. One other source of alarm had a still more fearful significance. There was a great wooden HAND—a glove-maker's sign, which used to swing and creak in the blast as it hung from a pillar before a certain shop a mile or two outside of the city. Oh, the dreadful hand! Always hanging there ready to catch up a little boy, who *would come* home to supper no more, nor yet to bed,—whose porringer *would be laid away* empty thenceforth, and his half-worn shoes wait until his small brother grew to fit them.

5.

Hark!

It comes!

It hums!

With ear to ground

I catch the sound,

The warning courier-roar

That runs along before.

The pulsing, struggling, now is clearer!

The hillsides echo "Nearer, nearer,"

Till like a drove of rushing, frightened cattle,

With dust and wind, and clang, and shriek and rattle,

Passes the cyclops of the train!

I see a fair face at a pane,—

Like a piano-string

The rails, unburdened, sing;

The white smoke flies
 Up to the skies;
 The sound
Is drowned,—
 Hark!

6. We are told by men of science that all the ventures of mariners on the sea, all that countermarching of tribes and races that confounds old history with its dust and rumour, sprang from nothing more abstruse than the laws of supply and demand, and a certain natural instinct for cheap rations. To any one thinking deeply this will seem a dull and pitiful explanation. The tribes that came swarming out of the North and East, if they *were* indeed *pressed* onward from behind by others, *were drawn* at the same time by the magnetic influence of the South and West. The fame of other lands *had reached* them; the name of The Eternal City rang in their ears; they were not colonists, but pilgrims; they travelled toward wine and gold and sunshine, but their hearts were set on something higher. That divine unrest, that old stinging trouble of humanity that makes all high achievements and all miserable failure, the same that spread wings with Icarus, the same that sent Columbus into the desolate Atlantic, inspired and supported these barbarians on their perilous march.

7. There rolls the deep where grew the tree;
 O earth, what changes *hast* thou *seen*!
 There where the long street roars, *hath been*
 The stillness of the central sea.

The hills are shadows, and they flow
 From form to form, and nothing stands;
 They melt like mist, the solid lands,
 Like clouds they shape themselves and go.

But in my spirit *will* I *dwell*,
 And dream my dream, and hold it true;
 For, tho' my lips *may breathe* adieu,
 I cannot think the thing farewell.

CHAPTER III

CLASSES OF SENTENCES

A.—ACCORDING TO COMPOSITION

I. SIMPLE SENTENCES

49. Uses of the Simple Sentence.—*A sentence which is made up of one subject and one predicate is called a simple sentence; thus,*

The fierce *winds stripped* the trees of their leaves;
The *ploughman* homeward *plods* his weary way;
None but the brave *deserves* the fair.

We could, of course, express everything that we have to say, in the form of simple sentences, as in the following:

I awoke one day. It was last week. It was six o'clock. I got up at once. I dressed myself. The sun was up. It was hidden by clouds. The morning was not very clear. I walked into the garden. The grass was still wet. The bushes were still wet. The dew lay upon them. I saw a bird. The bird lay on the ground. It could not fly. It was wounded. Some one had hit it with a stone. I picked the bird up. I brought it into the house. I put it into a cage. I fed it. I tended it. It got well. I let it out. It flew away.

But if we ordinarily spoke in this way we should find that our speech would be very monotonous, and that much time would be wasted in repetition. Such a series of short sentences, too, would sound jerky; and besides, we should have no means of expressing the relations between our thoughts, and no way of indicating whether our statements were all of equal importance. We find, as a result, that we are generally able to express ourselves better by combining the

short sentences in various ways, by means of connectives. Here, for example :

I awoke at six o'clock one day last week, *and* at once got up *and* dressed myself. The morning was not very clear, *for*, *though* the sun was up, it was hidden by clouds. *As* I walked out into the garden, *where* the grass and bushes were still wet with the dew *that* lay upon them, I saw a bird lying on the ground. It could not fly, *because* some one had wounded it with a stone. I picked it up *and* brought it into the house, put it into a cage, *and* fed *and* tended it *until* it got well. Then I released it, *and* it flew away.

II. COMPOUND SENTENCES

50. Co-ordinate Clauses and their Relations.—If we examine the two sentences :

I awoke *and* I got up at once;

The sun was up, *but* it was hidden by clouds;

we find that each sentence is made up of two independent statements joined together by a conjunction. Each statement is complete in itself, and is therefore a **principal** (or **independent**) **clause** (45), and as the clauses are of equal value in the sentence, they are said to be **co-ordinate**, and the conjunction joining them is said to be **co-ordinative** (25).

A sentence like one of the above, made up of two or more simple sentences, is called a compound sentence.

But the clauses of which the compound sentence is composed, do not always stand in the same relation to one another; in other words, the conjunctions which connect them may express different relations. Consider the following sentences, for instance :

The streams are dried up *and* the ground is parched;

She must weep *or* she will die;

I begged him to come *but* he refused;

To-morrow will be fine, *for* the sunset is red.

In the first sentence the ideas expressed by the two clauses joined by *and* are connected as having reference

singly to the same general fact,—the dryness of the weather. In the second sentence the conjunction *or* implies the necessity of choosing between the actions expressed by the two clauses. In the third sentence the conjunction *but* implies that the actions expressed by the two clauses are opposite or contrary in character. In the last sentence the conjunction *for* implies that the second clause contains the reason for the fact stated in the first.

51. Co-ordinate Words Forming Compound Elements.

—As we call a sentence compound when it is made up of two or more co-ordinate clauses, usually connected by conjunctions, so we call any member of a sentence or of a clause a compound member, or element, when it is made up of two or more co-ordinate words, usually bound together by conjunctions; thus, for example:

Buttercups and daisies bloom in the fields in summer;

The crystal brook *leaps and dances* on its way;

We watched *him and her* pass the door;

The ship was tossed *hither and thither* by the waves;

He received a good sum *over and above* his wages.

The co-ordinate words which form a compound member of any sentence are sometimes joined together very loosely. The sentence, "The rainbow comes and goes"; might be, for example, expanded into two sentences, each sentence containing one of the co-ordinate verbs, thus, "The rainbow comes"; and, "The rainbow goes." But frequently we find either that the compound member expresses in reality only one single notion, or that the notions expressed by the co-ordinate words are so closely related that they cannot be separated without changing the sense. Consider, for instance, the character of the compound members of the following sentences:

Two and two make four;
Time and tide wait for no man;
 The enemy *turned and fled* on our approach;
 They *called and called*, but received no reply;
 She watches over him *night and day*;
 The sentry paced *to and fro* in front of the castle.

52. **Omission of Connectives.**—Thus far we have spoken of clauses in a compound sentence as being joined together by connectives,—usually conjunctions, or conjunctive pronouns. Sometimes, however, we find that it is of advantage to omit the connectives where the relations between the clauses can be readily seen without them. Examples are:

I came (and) I saw (and) I conquered;
 The Lord reigneth; (therefore) let the earth rejoice.

EXERCISE 14

✓ *Bracket the simple sentences of which each of the following compound sentences is composed. Underline the co-ordinative conjunctions:*

1. The trees will soon be bare, for the leaves are falling.
2. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,
And all the air a solemn stillness holds.
3. A soft answer turneth away wrath, but grievous words stir up anger.
4. The breath of heaven must swell the sail, or all the toil is lost.
5. The day is done and the darkness
Falls from the wings of night.
6. Blessed are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth.
7. All men were against him: nevertheless he persevered.
8. Some men are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them.
9. God sends great angels in our sore distress,
But little ones go in and out all day.
10. Either youth must learn economy or old age must suffer want.

11. The poor is hated even of his own neighbour, but the rich hath many friends.
12. And out again I curve and flow,
To join the brimming river;
For men may come, and men may go,
But I go on for ever.
13. Wealth may seek us; but wisdom must be sought.
14. A little weeping would ease my heart,
But in their briny bed
My tears must stop, for every drop
Hinders needle and thread.
15. No man can serve two masters, for either he will hate the one and love the other, or else he will hold to the one and despise the other.

III. COMPLEX SENTENCES

53. The Subordinate Clause.—If we examine the sentences:

He little knew how much he wronged her;
Each thought of the woman who loved him best;
They trimmed their lamps as the sun went down;

we shall find that each sentence contains only one principal clause. In all three sentences the second clause is dependent upon some word in the first, and has the value of a single part of speech; thus,

how much he wronged her is a noun, object of *knew*;
who loved him best is an adjective, modifying *woman*;
as the sun went down is an adverb modifying *trimmed*.

As we have already pointed out, when a clause does not make a complete statement by itself, and has the value of a part of speech in another clause, it is called a **subordinate clause** (46).

A sentence which is made up of a principal clause together with one or more subordinate clauses, is said to be **complex**. (Complex means "woven together.")

54. How Joined to Principal Clause.—A subordinate clause may be joined to a principal clause by:

(1) A subordinative conjunction (25), such as *that*, *because*, *if*, *than*; for example:

I believe *that* it is so; I went *because* he came;

I will go *if* you do;

He is taller *than* I am (tall).

(2) A conjunctive adverb (37); thus,

I am never merry *when* I hear sweet music.

NOTE:—In the sentences:

This is the house *where* (in which) I live;

It was the time *when* (at which) lilies blow;

where and *when* have the value of conjunction, adverb, and pronoun, but for the sake of brevity we may classify them simply as conjunctive adverbs.

(3) A conjunctive pronoun (35); thus,

He followed the path *which* led to the woods;

All *that* glitters is not gold.

(4) A conjunctive adjective (36); thus,

The children gathered *what* flowers they could find;

I hardly know *which* offer I should accept.

55. Relations of Subordinate Clauses.—When a complex sentence contains more than one subordinate clause, these clauses may stand in different relations to one another and to the principal clause:

(1) Two or more subordinate clauses may have the same construction in the sentence; thus,

I saw *that a storm was approaching* and *that I must seek shelter*.

Subordinate clauses which have the same construction in the sentence are co-ordinate with one another, that is, they have the same rank. They are joined together by co-ordinative conjunctions. Thus the clauses *that a storm was approaching* and *that I must seek shelter*, are co-ordinate and are joined by the co-ordinative conjunction *and*.

(2) A subordinate clause may have another clause subordinate to it; thus,

When I saw that a storm was approaching, I sought shelter,

(3) Subordinate clauses may have different values, and may not be directly connected with one another; thus,

When the storm approached, I saw that I must seek shelter.

EXERCISE 15

Bracket the subordinate clauses in the following complex sentences:

1. While there is life there is hope.
2. The flower that smiles to-day, to-morrow dies.
3. I cannot say how soon I shall return.
4. Who steals my purse steals trash.
5. Look to the Rock whence ye are hewn.
6. Flowers are the sweetest things that God ever made.
7. Take care never to repeat in one company what you hear in another.
8. There is a tide in the affairs of men
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune.
9. When faith is lost and when honour dies, the man is dead.
10. He that ruleth his speech is better than he that taketh a city.
11. How beautiful upon the mountains are the feet of him that bringeth good tidings!
12. One who is contented with what he has done will never be famous for what he will do.
13. Macaulay says that the Puritans hated bear-baiting, not because it gave pain to the bear, but because it gave pleasure to the spectators.
14. That man is little to be envied whose patriotism would not gain force upon the plains of Marathon, or whose piety would not grow warmer amid the ruins of Iona.
15. The harp that once through Tara's halls
The soul of music shed,
Now hangs as mute on Tara's walls
As if that soul were fled.

56. The Compound-Complex Sentence.—We have seen that a sentence made up of two or more simple sentences is said to be *compound* (50). But in the sentence:

I told him that he was mistaken, but he would not hear me;
the first statement is complex and the second is simple;
and in the sentence:

I told him that he was mistaken, but he would not listen to
what I said;

both statements are complex. A compound sentence one or more of whose members is complex, is said to be **compound-complex**.

57. Abbreviated Constructions.—In both principal and subordinate clauses, where the meaning can be readily understood certain parts are sometimes omitted for the sake of greater economy, as, for instance:

He is uncertain how (he ought) to proceed;
Kind hearts are more than coronets (are much);
Down we swept, and (we) charged, and (we) overthrew;
Give every man thine ear, but (give) few thy voice.

IV. CONTAINED PRINCIPAL CLAUSES

We have next to consider two constructions in which we find principal clauses contained in other clauses, and forming a part of them.

58. Principal Clauses Quoted.—In the sentence:

Tell me-not in mournful numbers,
"Life is but an empty dream!"

the principal clause, "Life is but an empty dream"; is a quotation which is used as object of the verb *tell*. All such expressions, whether they consist of one sentence, as above, or of more,—as, for instance, in the report of a speech—have the value of nouns in the sentences in which they are contained. But the sentences of which such expressions are composed may, of course, be analysed separately.

59. **Parenthetical Principal Statements.**—In the sentences:

He has not succeeded, *I fear*;
This, *I think*, will be the final test;
You can do better than this, *I am sure*;

the clauses *I fear*, *I think*, *I am sure*, are parenthetical principal statements. The relation of such clauses to the sentences in which they are contained will be considered later (306).

B.—ACCORDING TO FORM

V. GENERAL CLASSIFICATION

60. **Different Forms of Sentences.**—Thus far we have considered the **assertive** sentence; but, as we have already pointed out (11), instead of making an assertion the sentence may take the form of a question or a command; and, as we shall see later, a sentence containing an assertion, a question, or a command, sometimes also takes the form of an exclamation.

In each of the sentences:

Did he arrive yesterday?
Will he go to town?

the speaker's thought is expressed in the form of a question, and the sentence is said to be **interrogative**.

In each of the sentences:

Listen to me;
Return home at once;

the speaker's thought is expressed in the form of a command, and the sentence is said to be **imperative**.

And finally in each of the assertions:

How are the mighty fallen!
What an eventful day this has been!

the sentence takes the form of an exclamation, and is said to be **exclamatory**.

EXERCISE 16

(a) *State whether the following are assertive, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory.*

(b) *Point out the bare subject and the bare predicate in each sentence.*

1. How swiftly the stream flows!
2. Is this a dagger that I see before me?
3. The child is father of the man.
4. What news on the Rialto?
5. O, what a fall was there, my countrymen!
6. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
7. What honest man would accept a bribe?
8. Thou hast all seasons for thine own, O Death!
9. With all thy getting, get understanding.
10. When did Columbus discover America?
11. Now came still evening on.
12. Go to the ant, thou sluggard!

VI. THE ASSERTIVE SENTENCE

61. Makes a Statement.—In the *assertive* sentence we state that something is true of the thing that the subject stands for,—that a connection exists between the notions represented by the subject and the predicate.

The Order of Words.—In the assertive sentence the subject with its modifiers usually stands first, and it is followed by the predicate with its modifiers. Sometimes, however, we find a variation from the usual order of words, either for the sake of securing greater force, or in order to heighten the poetic effect; for example:

A chieftain's daughter seemed the maid;

Louder still the clamour grew,
And louder still the minstrels blew;

Hateful is the dark blue sky
Vaulted o'er the dark blue sea.

VII. THE INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE

62. Asks a Question.—The interrogative sentence is used in asking a question,—that is, it expresses the speaker's desire to know something; for example,

Has he gone?

What is your name?

Where are you going?

NOTE:—We could, if we wished, express these desires in the form of assertive sentences; thus,

I desire to know whether he has gone;

I wish you to tell me your name;

I desire you to say where you are going;

but the interrogative sentence is shorter and more direct than the assertive, and we generally prefer to use it.

63. The Inverted Order of Words.—If we compare the interrogative sentence,

Has he gone?

with the assertive sentence,

He has gone;

we find that in the interrogative sentence a part of the verb precedes the subject, and that, in addition, some special means is used—the tone of voice in speaking, the interrogation mark in writing—to indicate that we are asking a question rather than stating a fact. Sometimes, as a matter of fact, we do not change the order of words in asking a question, but depend entirely upon the inflection of the voice or upon the use of the interrogation mark to express interrogation; for example,

You received my last letter?

This is Mr. Brown, I believe?

And, if, furthermore, we compare the assertive sentence "He goes"; with the interrogative sentence "Does he go?" we find that while we have used a simple verb in the assertive sentence we have made use of a verb phrase to express the same idea in the

interrogative. In this case, as in the former, a part of the verb also precedes the subject.

The order of words in a sentence in which the verb precedes the subject, is called the **inverted order**; and the sentence is said to be an **inverted one**. The inverted order is chiefly used in the interrogative sentence; but, as we have already seen, it is also found in the assertive sentence.

64. Varieties of the Interrogative.—If now we compare the sentence, "Has he gone?" with the sentence "Where has he gone?" we find that although both are interrogative sentences, they differ in character. The first sentence simply asks whether his going is a fact, and the question may be answered by *yes* or *no*. The second sentence calls for something more than a mere affirmation or denial, and is introduced by a special interrogative word *Where*, which indicates what kind of information is desired. If, for instance, we answer the question by saying,

He has gone to Toronto;

it is evident that the phrase *to Toronto* in the reply, corresponds to the interrogative word *Where* in the question. In the sentence given above, the word *Where* is an **interrogative adverb**; but we find that pronouns and adjectives are also used as special interrogative words; for example, in the sentence, "Who goes there?" *Who* is an interrogative pronoun, and in the sentence, "What tidings did he bring?" *What* is an interrogative adjective.

Besides the two forms of the interrogative sentence described above, there are two other varieties which are frequently used:

(1) Instead of asking a question in the simple form to which the answer *yes* or *no* might be given, we sometimes prefer to make our question express an alternative, as, for instance,

Will you go or stay?

This form of question cannot be answered by *yes* or *no*, but requires a complete statement, such as, "I will go"; or "I will stay."

(2) Sometimes, instead of asking a direct question, we first suggest in assertive form the nature of the answer that we expect, and then add a question, in abbreviated form, asking for a confirmation of our statement, as, for instance, in the following:

So you are going abroad, are you?

This is fine weather, isn't it?

EXERCISE 17

Describe the construction of the interrogative sentences which are italicized, in the following paragraph:

The following conversation once took place between an agent and an Irish voter, on the eve of an election: "*You are a Roman Catholic?*" "Am I?" said the fellow. "Are you not?" demanded the agent. "You say I am," was the answer. "Come, sir, answer, *What's your religion?*" "The true religion." "What religion is that?" "My religion." "Come, I'll have you now, cunning as you are," said the agent, piqued into an encounter of wit with this fellow, whose baffling of his questions pleased the crowd. "*You bless yourself, don't you?*" "When I'm done with you I think I ought." "*What place of worship do you go to?*" "The most convenient." "But of what persuasion are you?" "My persuasion is that you won't find it out." "What is your belief?" "My belief is that you are puzzled." "*Do you confess?*" "Not to you." "Come, now, I have you. *Whom would you send for if you were likely to die?*" "The doctor, of course." "Not for the priest?" "I must first get a messenger." "Confound your quibbling!—tell me, then, what your opinions are—your conscientious opinions, I mean." "They are the same as my landlord's." "*And what are your landlord's opinions?*" "Faith, his opinion is that I won't pay him the last year's rent; and I am of the same opinion myself." A roar of laughter followed this retort; but the angry agent at last declared that he must have a direct reply. "I insist, sir, on you answering

at once: "*Are you a Roman Catholic?*" "I am," said the fellow. "And could you not say so at once?" "You never asked me," returned the other.

VIII. THE IMPERATIVE SENTENCE

65. Expresses a Command.—The imperative sentence expresses a command, requirement, entreaty, or request; for example,

Judge not, that ye be not judged;
Neither a borrower nor a lender be;
Never cross a bridge until you have come to it;
Tell me his name, I prithee.

The imperative sentence differs from the other sentence forms in that the subject is seldom expressed. When the subject is expressed it may either precede or follow the verb, as, for instance,

Go thou, and do likewise!
You listen to this, James!

We shall have occasion to notice, too, when we come to discuss the verb, in a later chapter, that a special verb form is sometimes used in the imperative sentence; we shall find also that the imperative sentence differs only slightly from certain forms of the assertive sentence which are used likewise to express command or entreaty.

IX. THE EXCLAMATORY SENTENCE

66. Expresses Strong Emotion.—The assertive sentence, as we have seen, makes a statement; the interrogative asks a question; the imperative expresses a command; and each variety of sentence usually has its own distinctive form. But in addition to expressing an assertion, a question, or a command, each of the three forms of sentences is sometimes used to express strong emotion. A sentence which gives

expression to an outburst of strong emotion is said to be **exclamatory**, and some cases of the three varieties of sentences described above, may accordingly be further classified as **exclamatory assertive**, **exclamatory interrogative**, and **exclamatory imperative**. The following are examples:

The foe! They come! They come!

'Tis done! 'Tis done! Ha! Ha! We have overthrown the proud!

Was there ever such a spring as this!

Arise! Ye Goths, and glut your ire!

In the exclamatory assertive sentence, the inverted order is common and frequently the words *what* and *how* are used to give force to the exclamation, as in the following:

“What a piece of work is man! How noble in reason! How infinite in faculties! In form and moving how express and admirable! In action, how like an angel! In apprehension, how like a god!”

NOTE:—It will be noticed that in all three varieties of the exclamatory sentence the expression of strong feeling alters the character of the assertion, inquiry, or command. In the sentence,

How are the mighty fallen!

the statement of fact is not so important as the expression of feeling. In the sentence,

Who could have believed it!

we do not look for answer to our question; and in the sentence,

Break, break, break, on thy cold, gray stones, O Sea!

the speaker is not giving a command in the ordinary sense of the term.

67. Brevity of Emotional Expression.—We have hitherto spoken of emotional expression only as it takes the form of a complete sentence. But in giving utterance to strong feeling the tendency is to emphasize the words that directly express our emotion, and to omit the other parts of the sentence. When we are overcome with surprise, anger, fear, etc., our feelings struggle for utterance in the briefest and most direct form, and an expression of our emotions in formal

sentences would weaken the force of what we have to say. Emotional expression tends strongly to verbal incompleteness; as, for instance, in the following:

Hence! horrible shadow! unreal mockery! hence!

Alone! Alone! all, all alone!

Alone on a wide, wide sea!

And if we wish our exclamations to form complete sentences containing subject and predicate, in most cases other words must be supplied.

Nore:—The clauses which enter into compound and complex sentences may be either assertive, interrogative, or imperative. For example:

- (1) Who is this and what is here?) Both principal clauses interrogative.
- (2) Put off thy shoes from off thy) Principal imperative and principal
feet, for the place whereon thou) assertive clauses.
standest is holy ground.)
- (3) The Lord is the strength of my) Principal assertive and principal
life; of whom shall I be afraid?) interrogative clauses.

X. ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

68. Nature and Forms of Analysis.—One of the chief forms of grammatical exercise is the Analysis of Sentences. Analysis (Gr. *Analysein* "to unloose"), as here used, means the resolving of the sentence into its elements. It consists in, (a) the division of compound and complex sentences into the clauses of which they are composed, and the statement of the kind and relation of each; and (b) the division of each simple sentence and clause into its parts and the statement of their relations. But as the relations of the different parts of the simple sentence are considered fully elsewhere, and as this latter form of analysis is largely elementary, it will be sufficient if we confine our treatment, for the present, to the analysis of sentences into clauses.

69. Method of Analysis.—In the analysis of sentences into clauses the principal clause in each sentence should be stated first, and all clauses should be

written in full. When a principal clause is grammatically incomplete, the fact should be stated. Coordinative conjunctions joining principal clauses may be placed in brackets. The following is suggested as a model for analysis of sentences at this stage:

We are what suns and winds and waters make us:
 The mountains are our sponsors, and the rills
 Fashion and win their nursling with their smiles.
 But where the land is dim from tyranny,
 There tiny pleasures occupy the place
 Of glories and of duties; as the feet
 Of fabled faeries, when the sun goes down,
 Trip o'er the grass where wrestlers strove by day.

This passage consists of three sentences:

1. We are.....us—Complex.
2. The mountains...smiles—Compound.
3. But where.....day—Complex.

It is composed of the following clauses:

- I. *We are* Principal. Assertive; Incomplete.
 1. *what suns and winds and waters make us*; Subord.
 Noun, completing *are* (20).
- II. *The mountains are* our sponsors;
 Principal. Assertive.
- III. (And) *the rills fashion and win* their nursling with their smiles;
 Principal. Assertive.
- IV. (But) *there tiny pleasures occupy* the place of glories and of duties;
 Principal. Assertive; Incomplete.
 1. *where the land is dim from tyranny*,
 Subord. Adverb, mod. *occupy*.
 2. *as the feet of fabled faeries trip o'er the grass*,
 Subord. Adverb, mod. *occupy*.
 3. *when the sun goes down*,
 Subord. Adverb, mod. *trip*.
 4. *where wrestlers strove by day*.
 Subord. Adj., mod. *grass*.

NOTE:—The following points should be observed in the analysis of complex sentences:

(1) The subordinate clause is usually connected with the principal clause by a conjunctive word; the conjunctive word is, however, sometimes omitted for the sake of brevity; thus,

I dreamed (that) there would be spring no more.

(2) In abbreviated constructions, when the subordinative conjunction is expressed, the subject or the predicate, or both, as the case may be, must be supplied; thus,

While (I was) visiting in Paris I met the ambassador.

(3) When a sentence contains a compound member it need not be expanded so as to form more than one sentence; for example, in the sentence,

Out again I curve and flow
To join the brimming river;

no expansion is required.

GENERAL EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS

Analyse the following passages so as to show the clauses of which they are composed:

1. Between the dark and the daylight,
When the night is beginning to lower,
Comes a pause in the day's occupations
That is known as the Children's Hour.
2. The heights by great men reached and kept
Were not attained by sudden flight;
But they, while their companions slept,
Were toiling upward in the night.
3. When I did first impart my love to you,
I freely told you all the wealth I had
Ran in my veins. When I told you
My state was nothing, I should then have told you
That I was worse than nothing.
4. Little do men perceive what Solitude is, and how far it
extendeth. For a crowd is not company, and faces are
but a gallery of pictures, and talk is but a tinkling
cymbal, where there is no love.

5. He that has light within his own clear breast
May sit i' the centre and enjoy bright day;
But he that hides a dark soul and foul thoughts,
Benighted walks under the mid-day sun;
Himself is his own dungeon.
6. When all was over, Wellington said to Blucher, as he stood by him on a little eminence looking down upon the field covered with the dead and dying, "A great victory is the saddest thing on earth, except a great defeat."
7. The evil that men do lives after them:
The good is oft interred with their bones;
So let it be with Cæsar. The noble Brutus
Hath told you Cæsar was ambitious:
If it were so, it was a grievous fault:
And grievously hath Cæsar answered it.
8. O, when I am safe in my sylvan home,
I tread on the pride of Greece and Rome;
And when I am stretched beneath the pines,
Where the evening star so holy shines,
I laugh at the lore and the pride of man,
At the sophist schools and the learned clan;
For what are they all, in their high conceit,
When man in the bush with God may meet?
9. There is often no better medicine for a hard-worked body and mind than a good laugh; and the man who can play most heartily when he has a chance of playing, is generally the man who can work most heartily when he must work.
10. To him who, in the love of Nature, holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language: for his gayer hours
She has a voice of gladness, and a smile
And eloquence of beauty; and she glides
Into his darker musings with a mild
And healing sympathy, that steals away
Their sharpness ere he is aware.

11. Soon as the evening shades prevail,
The moon takes up the wondrous tale,
And nightly to the listening earth
Repeats the story of her birth;
Whilst all the stars that round her burn
And all the planets in their turn,
Confirm the tidings as they roll,
And spread the truth from pole to pole.
12. He that would pass the latter part of his life with honour
must, when he is young, consider that he shall one day
be old, and remember, when he is old, that he has once
been young.
13. We spake of many a vanished scene,
Of what we once had thought and said,
Of what had been and might have been,
And who was changed and who was dead
And all that fills the hearts of friends,
When first they feel, with secret pain,
Their lives thenceforth have separate ends,
And never can be one again.
14. The fame of his discovery had resounded throughout
the nation, and as the route of Columbus lay through
several of the finest and most populous provinces of
Spain, his journey appeared like the progress of a
sovereign. Wherever he passed, the surrounding coun-
try poured forth its inhabitants, who lined the roads and
thronged the villages.
15. No life, my honest scholar! no life so happy and so
pleasant as the life of a well-governed angler; for when
the lawyer is swallowed up with business, and the
statesman is preventing or contriving plots, then we sit
on cowslip banks, and hear the birds sing, and possess
ourselves in as much quietness as these silent silver
streams, which we now see glide so quietly by us.
Indeed, my good scholar, we may say of angling—as
Dr. Boteler said of strawberries, "Doubtless God could
have made a better berry, but doubtless God never did."

16. Be careful that you do not commend yourself. It is a sign that your reputation is small and sinking, if your own tongue must praise you. Let your words be few, especially when your superiors or strangers are present, lest you betray your own weakness, and rob yourself of the opportunity which you might otherwise have had to gain knowledge, wisdom and experience by hearing those whom you silenced by your impertinent talking.
17. As a rule a man's a fool,
When it's hot he wants it cool,
When it's cool he wants it hot,
Always wanting what is not.
18. When Socrates was building himself a house, being asked by one who observed the littleness of the design, why a man so eminent would not have an abode more suitable to his dignity, he replied that he should think himself sufficiently accommodated if he could see that narrow habitation filled with real friends.
19. If you would know the flavour of huckleberries, ask the cow-boy or the partridge. It is a vulgar error to suppose that you have tasted huckleberries, who never plucked them. A huckleberry never reaches Boston; they have not been known there since they grew on her three hills. The ambrosial and essential part of the fruit is lost with the bloom which is rubbed off in the market cart, and they become mere provender. As long as eternal justice reigns, not one innocent huckleberry can be transported thither from the country's hills.
20. Be not afeard; the isle is full of noises,
Sounds and sweet airs that give delight and hurt not.
Sometimes a thousand twangling instruments
Will hum about mine ears, and sometimes voices
That, if I then had waked after long sleep,
Will make me sleep again; and then, in dreaming,
The clouds methought would open and show riches
Ready to drop on me, that, when I waked,
I cried to dream again.

CHAPTER IV

INFLECTION

1. THE NATURE OF INFLECTION

70. Inflection Defined.—In considering the different classes of words in the sentence we have seen that the meaning of the sentence depends to some extent upon the order of words. We shall now see, not only that the order of words affects the sense, but that words themselves undergo changes in form to express different shades of meaning or to show in what relation they stand to other words in the sentence. In the sentences, “I speak to him”; and “He spoke to me”; *speak* and *spoke* are different forms of the same verb, and *he* and *him* are different forms of the same pronoun. *Spoke* differs slightly in meaning from *speak*. On the other hand *he* does not differ in meaning from *him*, but the two words stand in different relations to the other words in the sentences in which they occur. When words such as *speak* and *he* undergo changes in form to indicate changes in meaning or in relation, they are said to be **inflected**, and the changes in form are said to be their **inflection**.

We may then define inflection as follows:

Inflection is a change in the form of a word to denote a change in meaning or in relation.

71. Methods of Inflection.—The most common method of inflection consists in adding something to the end of the word, as *ox-oxen*, *who-whom*, *teach-teaches*. Some words, however, are inflected by a change in the sounds of which they are composed, as, *man-men*, *speak-spoke*, *lead-led*; and a number of other words are in-

flected both by the addition of an ending and by an internal change, as, *brother-brethren*, *teach-taught*, *keep-kept*.

In all three instances the inflection consists in some actual change in the form of the word. Sometimes, however, instead of inflecting a word by a change in form, we use what seems to be, or really is, a wholly new word, to indicate a change in meaning or relation, as, *we-us*, *she-her*, *it-they*. This change of word is spoken of as inflection, although in reality it is not inflection, but a substitute for it.

72. Equivalents of Inflection.—Modern English is not nearly so strongly inflected as Latin, or Anglo-Saxon, or even modern German. When a language has few inflections some other means must be used to show differences in meaning or in function and relation. In the English sentence these differences are frequently shown in one of the following ways:

(a) By the position of the word in the sentence. For instance, in the sentence, "*Brutus* stabbed *Cæsar*"; we depend entirely upon the order of words to indicate that *Brutus* is subject, and *Cæsar* object, of the verb.

(b) By the use of prepositions or of particles. For instance, in the sentence,

He gives liberally to the poor;

the preposition *to* is used to show the relation of the word *poor* to the rest of the sentence. In a fully inflected language this relation would be shown by some change in the form of the word *poor* rather than by the use of a preposition.

(c) By the use of phrases. In English, for instance, there is no change in the form of the verb to indicate futurity, but future time is generally expressed by means of verb phrases; thus,

He will speak; We shall go.

Let us now consider some of the most important inflections:

II. INFLECTIONS WHICH DENOTE CHANGES IN MEANING

73. Number, in Nouns and Pronouns.—In the sentence,

A book is a man's best friend ;

we speak of only one book, one man, and one friend. If we wish to speak of more than one book, man, and friend, we must change the form of all these words and write the sentence as follows:

Books are men's best friends.

Similarly when we change the sentence,

He met *me* on the street ;

to,

They met *us* on the street ;

both the pronouns *He* and *me* are changed in order that they may each represent more than one person.

Both nouns and pronouns, then, may undergo a change in form to indicate a change in the number of the objects referred to, and in undergoing this change, the noun or the pronoun is said to be inflected for number. When a noun or a pronoun represents but one person or thing it is said to be in the singular number; when it represents more than one person or thing it is said to be in the plural number.

NOTE: There are some nouns and pronouns which do not undergo a change in form to denote a change in the number of objects which they represent. For example:

The *deer* comes (or *come*) down to the lake to drink;

The deer *which* roams (or *roam*) in the park.

In these sentences the words *deer* and *which* may have a singular or a plural meaning without change of form. They have, therefore, no inflection for number, and when we speak of them as singular or as plural, we have reference to their meaning and not to their form.

74. Tense, in Verbs.—If we compare the sentences:

The fire *burns* brightly;
The fire *burned* brightly;

we shall find that the second sentence expresses a different meaning from the first, and that this difference in meaning is indicated by a change in the form of the verb. When we use the word *burns*, we represent the action as taking place at the present time; when we use the word *burned* we represent the action as past. When a verb undergoes a change in form to indicate a corresponding change in the time expressed by the verb, it is said to be inflected for **tense** (*tense* means "time"). A verb which expresses present time is said to be in the **present** tense, and a verb which expresses past time is said to be in the **past** tense.

NOTE: (1) A verb which expresses future time is said to be in the **future** tense. The future tense in English, as we shall see later, is expressed by a verb phrase.

(2) Some verbs have but one form for both present and past; for example:

These books *cost* more last year than they *cost* now.

In using such verbs, we have to depend upon the other words in the sentence or the paragraph to show whether they are used with reference to the present time or to the past.

75. Mood, in Verbs.—When we compare the sentences:

He *fails* but he is not discouraged;
Though he *fail* he will not be discouraged,

we find that the verb *fails* in the first sentence differs in both form and meaning from the verb *fail* in the second sentence. In the first sentence the use of the verb *fails* denotes that the speaker considers that failure will be a fact. In the second sentence the use of the verb *fail* denotes that the speaker is thinking of failure merely as a possibility.

Compare also the sentences:

You *are* silent;
Be silent.

Here, also, owing to a change in the form of the verb *to be*, the second sentence differs in meaning from the first. The first sentence states what the speaker considers to be a fact; the second expresses an exhortation, command, or entreaty.

It is evident, then, that, in some cases at least, we use a different form of the verb according as we wish to state something as a fact, express a mere thought of something as possible, or give expression to a command, an exhortation, or an entreaty. When the form of the verb thus undergoes a change to denote a corresponding change in the mode or manner in which the thought is viewed, we say that it is inflected for mood (*mood*, or *mode*, means "manner"). When the action expressed by the verb is represented by the speaker as an actual fact, the verb is said to be in the **indicative** mood; when it is represented as a mere conception of the mind, the verb is said to be in the **subjunctive** mood, and when it is expressed in the form of a command, exhortation, or entreaty, the verb is said to be in the **imperative** mood.

NOTE: In some cases the same form of the verb is used to state a fact, express a mere conception of the mind, or give a command. For example:

You *deny* your guilt, but I do not believe you;
Lest you *deny* it I will not accuse you;
Deny it if you can.

In such sentences as these, since the form of the verb does not indicate the mood, we must consider the speaker's meaning as expressed in the context in order to ascertain whether the verb is indicative, subjunctive, or imperative. In the second sentence the use of the conjunction *Lest* indicates that we are

expressing only a conception of the mind; and in the third sentence the omission of the subject *you* indicates that we are expressing a command.

III. INFLECTIONS WHICH DENOTE CHANGES IN RELATION

76. Number, in the Verb.—We have already seen that most nouns and pronouns are inflected for number; and we have seen, furthermore, that these inflections are used to denote changes in meaning in the noun or in the pronoun. Now if we consider the sentences:

The bell rings loud;
The bells ring loud;
He likes music;
They like music;

we find that when the form of the noun or of the pronoun changes to denote a change in number, the form of the verb undergoes a corresponding change. This change in form, however, denotes not any change in the meaning of the verb, but only a change in the subject to which it is related. In the foregoing sentences, for example, the verb *ring* does not differ from the verb *rings* in meaning. *Ring*, however, is related to a plural subject, while *rings* is related to a singular subject. When a verb thus undergoes a change in form to denote a change in the number of its subject, it is said to be inflected for number.

77. Person in the Verb.—When we compare the sentences,

I give;
Thou givest;
He gives;

we find that three different pronouns, *I*, *Thou*, *He*, are used according as we wish the subject to represent the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of. This difference in the pronouns is called a difference of *person*; and in order to distinguish them

from one another, we call *I* the pronoun of the *first* person, *thou* (or *you*) the pronoun of the *second* person, and *he*, (or *she* or *it*) the pronoun of the *third* person. When we compare these sentences further, we find that when the subject changes to denote a difference in person, the verb also undergoes a change, thus, *give givest, gives* ; and as in the case of number, this change in form denotes a difference of relation. A verb is, therefore, said to be inflected for person when it undergoes a change in form to denote a change in the person of its subject.

NOTE: The verb is inflected for number and person in the second and third person singular only. But in all cases we speak of the verb, whether actually inflected or not, as being of the same number and person as its subject.

78. **Number and Person, of Conjunctive Pronouns.**—Certain pronouns, as we have already seen, are inflected to denote a change in number (73), and different pronouns are used also to denote a difference in person; for example:

I	} intend to travel.
We	
You	
They	

The conjunctive pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that*, are, however, not inflected for number and person at all, but are considered as being of the same number and person as the nouns or pronouns for which they stand; as, for example, in the following sentences:

I, *who* speak to thee, am he;
 O Thou *who* camest from above!
 He *who* laughs last, laughs best.

Accordingly when we wish to ascertain the number and the person of *who*, (and of any other pronouns similarly used) we must first ascertain the number and the person of the noun or pronoun for which it stands.

79. **Number, in Adjectives.**—In some languages, such as the French, adjectives also are inflected for number; that is, they have singular and plural forms, which are used according as the nouns they modify are singular or plural. In English, the words *this* and *that* when used as adjectives, have the plural forms *these* and *those*, but this is the only case of adjective inflection.

80. **Case, in Nouns and in Pronouns.**—The term *case* is used in English to denote either the function of the noun or pronoun, or its relation to other words in the sentence. There are three cases in English, the nominative, the possessive, and the objective. A noun or pronoun is said to be in the **nominative** case when it is used as subject of a verb. It is said to be in the **possessive** case when it modifies another noun or pronoun, and denotes possession; and it is said to be in the **objective** case when it is used as the object of a verb or a preposition. But, as we shall see later, the terms, *nominative*, *possessive*, and *objective*, are also applied to nouns and pronouns which stand in certain special relations to other words in the sentence and perform certain special functions which will be described hereafter.

81. **Inflection for Case.**—When the noun and the pronoun undergo a change in form to denote a change in function or in relation, they are said to be inflected for case. Nouns in English are not inflected in the nominative and objective cases, and many pronouns also, such as *it*, *which*, *that*, *some*, *any*, *many*, have the same form whether used as subject or as object; for example,

This *country* is rich in forests;
It is rich in forests;
 Canadians are proud of their *country*;
 Canadians are proud of *it*.

Some pronouns, however, have different forms in the nominative and objective cases. For instance, if we compare the sentences:

He forgives *us*;
We forgive *him*;

we find that the pronouns *He* and *We* have different forms according as they are used as subject or as object of the verb. The words *he* and *we* do not differ in meaning from *him* and *us*; the change in form denotes a change in relation only.

All nouns are inflected in the possessive case; thus,
Our *country's* emblem; the *soldier's* dream; a *spider's* web.

A few pronouns admit of a possessive; for example,
thine enemy; *his* downfall; *others'* faults;

but, as we have already seen (34), such forms as *thine* and *his*, as here used, are generally valued as adjectives.

IV. SUMMARY AND DEFINITIONS

82. Summary.—What has thus far been stated with regard to the inflection of the various parts of speech may be briefly summed up as follows:

(1) Verbs are inflected to a slight extent for *tense*, *mood*, *person*, and *number*. The inflection of the verb for tense and mood denotes a change in meaning. The inflection of the verb for number and person denotes a change in relation.

(2) Nouns and pronouns are inflected to a slight extent for *number* and *case*. The inflection of nouns and pronouns for number denotes a change in meaning. The inflection of nouns and pronouns for case denotes a change in function or in relation.

(3) The other parts of speech are not inflected, with the exception of the words *this* and *that* when used as adjectives.

83. Definitions of Terms.—We have next to consider the meaning of certain terms that are frequently used in describing the inflection of nouns, pronouns, and verbs.

1. **Stem:** The simplest form of a word, that is, the uninflected form, is known as the **stem** or base of inflection. For example, *sing* is the stem of *sings*, and *truth* is the stem of *truths*.

2. **Conjugation:** The inflection of the verb is known as its **conjugation**, and when we name the various forms of the verb we are said to *conjugate* it. (The word *conjugation* literally means "a joining together.")

3. **Declension:** The inflection of the noun and the pronoun is known as their **declension**, and we are said to *decline* the noun and the pronoun when we state their various forms.

NOTE:—*Inflection* comes from the Latin *flecto*, "I bend"; *declension* is derived from a Greek word, *klino*, "I bend," and *case* is derived from the Latin, *cado*, "I fall." All these words, when used in speaking of case in nouns and pronouns, have reference to the fact that the early grammarians represented the nominative case by a perpendicular line, and the other cases by slanting lines "bending" or "falling" away from the perpendicular.

4. **Government and Agreement:** We have already seen that the inflection of a word sometimes depends upon its relation to other words in the sentence. Thus in the sentence, "He calls me"; the verb *calls* is third person singular because the subject *He* is third person singular; and the pronoun *me* is in the objective case form to show its relation to *calls*. *He* is then said to *govern* the verb *calls* with respect to person and number, and *calls* is said to *govern* the pronoun *me* with respect to case. On the other hand *calls* is said to *agree* with *He* with respect to person and number; but as the verb has no inflection for case there is, of course, no agreement between *calls* and *me*. We may thus have government without agreement.

CHAPTER V

WORD FORMATION

I. CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS: CONSONANTS

84. Consonants and Vowels.—We have described the sentence as a combination of words expressing a complete thought. If now we examine the words which go to make up a sentence, we shall find that they are composed of either single sounds or combinations of sounds. These sounds are uttered by means of the vocal organs, the larynx, tongue, teeth, lips, and palate, and are divided into two classes, **consonants** and **vowels**, according to the way in which the vocal organs are used in producing them. In uttering consonant sounds the breath does not pass out freely through the vocal organs, and there is either stoppage, or friction. In uttering vowel sounds, on the other hand, the breath passes freely through the vocal organs without producing friction.

85. Stops and Continuants.—Consonants are divided into two main classes, **stops** and **continuants**. The stops are six in number, viz., *b*, *p*; *d*, *t*; *g* (hard), *k*. They are so named because in pronouncing them the breath is stopped for an instant before being allowed to pass through. The continuants are so named because in pronouncing them the breath passage is only partly closed and the sound of the letter may be prolonged, or continued at will.

The continuants are divided into four classes, according to the manner in which the breath is obstructed in their pronunciation.

(a) **Nasal:** *m, n, ng*. In pronouncing these consonants the breath is stopped by the lips or by the tongue and palate, but is allowed to find its way out through the nose.

(b) **Lateral:** *l*. In pronouncing this letter the breath is stopped by the tongue pressing against the palate, but finds its way out along the sides of the tongue.

(c) **Trill:** *r* (as in *bring*). In pronouncing this letter the tongue vibrates against the palate, and produces a trilling sound.

(d) **Fricative:** *h, γ, r* (as in *far*), *s, z, sh, th, f, v, w, wh*. In pronouncing these letters a buzzing or hissing sound is produced.

86. Voiced and Voiceless Consonants.—A second classification of consonants depends upon the vibration produced in uttering them. When such consonants as *v, d, b*, are pronounced, the vocal chords vibrate in such a way as to cause a corresponding vibration in the bony structure of the head, as may be felt by placing the hand across the middle of the top of the head while sounding them; but on the other hand when such consonants as *f, t, p*, are pronounced, no vibration is noticed. Consonants belonging to the former class are said to be **voiced**, whereas those belonging to the latter class are **voiceless**. In the following table those which are voiced are printed in heavier type.

Consonants may be still further classified according to the vocal organ that is chiefly concerned in their pronunciation. The table following will show this classification in full:

87. Table of Consonants.—

	<i>Stops</i>		<i>Continuants</i>			
			<i>Nasal</i>	<i>Lateral</i>	<i>Trill</i>	<i>Fricative</i>
Throat						h
Palate	k, g (hard)	ng				y
Tongue	t, d	n	l	r		r
			(as in <i>bring</i>)	(as in <i>far</i>)		s
						(as in <i>is</i>)
						s
						(as in <i>so</i>)
						sh, z
						(as in <i>azure</i>)
Tongue-Teeth						th
						(as in <i>thin</i>)
						th
						(as in <i>thine</i>)
Lip-Teeth						f, v
Lip	p, b	m				wh, w

EXERCISE 18

Classify the initial consonant sounds in the following, as,

(a) *Stops or continuants (give sub-class).*

(b) *Voiced or voiceless.*

(c) *Produced by throat, lips, tongue, etc.*

fox	house	pear	Mary	roar
thou	bill	large	whale	young
zone	game	shop	never	thing
curb	vain	dark	Tom	wall.

EXERCISE 19

Describe the consonant sounds represented by the italicized letters in the following:

<i>chill</i>	<i>sung</i>	<i>wax</i>	<i>swim</i>
<i>phone</i>	<i>tray</i>	<i>quill</i>	<i>George</i>
<i>stand</i>	<i>wrong</i>	<i>might</i>	<i>could.</i>

II. CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS: VOWELS

✓ 88. **Vowels Classified.**—Vowels do not admit of so definite a classification as consonants. They may, however, be classified in two ways:

(a) According to the position of the tongue in pronouncing them. In pronouncing certain vowel sounds, such as *ee* in *see*, for instance, the tongue is moved forward to the front of the mouth; in pronouncing certain others, as, for instance, *o* in *do*, the tongue is drawn backwards toward the throat. Vowels which require the tongue to be thrust forward are called **front** vowels; those which require the tongue to be drawn back are called **back** vowels; and those which require no such definite forward or backward movement of the tongue, as *i* in *mirth*, for instance, are called **mixed**, or **neutral** vowels.

In a similar way vowels may be classified as **high**, **low**, or **mid** vowels, according as the tongue is raised to the full extent, is lowered to the full extent, or occupies an intermediate position, in pronouncing them. For instance, the vowel *e* in *we* is high, the vowel *e* in *set* is low, and the vowel *a* in *lane* is a mid vowel.

(b) According to the action of the lips in pronouncing them. In pronouncing certain vowels such as *o* in *who*, or *aw* in *law*, the lips are rounded. In pronouncing others, such as *e* in *he*, or *a* in *fate*, the lips are not rounded, but the opening is horizontal; and in pronouncing still others, such as *a* in *ah*, the lips are neutral, being neither rounded nor contracted horizontally.

In classifying consonants we saw that some are voiced, while others are voiceless. All of the vowels, however, are voiced.

When two vowel sounds are uttered in close succession they are said to form a **diphthong**, (Gr. *diphthoggos*, "with two sounds"). A diphthong may be represented by two letters as *oi* in *oil*, or it may be represented by one letter as *i* in *hive*, which is like the sound of *a* in *bath*, gliding into the sound of *ee* in *see*.

EXERCISE 20

Describe the position of the tongue and the lips in pronouncing the vowel sounds in the following:

spin, male, put, moan, line, beech, moon, wan, one, set, gone.

III. SYLLABLES: WORD STRESS, AND SENTENCE STRESS

89. Syllables.—A single vowel sound, as the sound of *e* in *educate*, or a combination of sounds consisting of a vowel with one or more consonants, as *dark* in *darkness*, uttered with one movement of the vocal organs, is known as a **syllable**. A word may be composed of a single syllable, or of a combination of syllables.

NOTE.—Where possible the division of a word at the end of a line should be avoided by proper attention to spacing. When, however, it is necessary to divide a word at the end of a line, the structure and derivation of the word must be considered in making the division. Words containing only one vowel sound cannot be divided and must be written entire. In words of more than one syllable the division should be made, where possible, between the prefix or suffix and the root, or between the simple words that enter into a compound. Where there is any doubt as to the division it is usual to begin a new syllable with a consonant; but this is not an absolute rule and in cases of difficulty it is advisable to consult a good etymological dictionary or other authority.

EXERCISE 21

Show how the following words should be divided at the end of the line:

morning, decline, market, kindred, epitaph, glorious,
arrival, incident, suspicion, grammar, immense, accession.

90. Breath-groups.—In ordinary speech we do not pronounce each word distinctly and separately, but we group words together, according to the sense, in what are known as **breath-groups**, so that pauses occur after each group rather than after each word; thus,

The-voice-of-the-echoing-thunder/

Told-her-that-God-was-in-Heaven/ and-governed-the-world-he-
created/;

Then-she-remembered/ the-tale-she-had-heard/ of-the-justice-of-
Heaven.

91. Word Stress and Sentence Stress.—In every word of more than one syllable, there is generally one syllable which receives greater stress or emphasis than the others; and in the breath-group, likewise, there is generally some word which is more strongly stressed than the other words in the group. In case of the word, this stress is called **word stress**, and in the case of the breath-group, **sentence stress**.

EXERCISE 22

Divide the following words into syllables, and mark the word stress:

address, advertise, beautiful, catalogue, chastisement, dis-
solute, electricity, erroneous, fundamental, glycerine, hereditary,
illustrate, indisputable, kangaroo, lineament, miscellaneous,
nightingale, obsequies, obsequious, privilege, quinine, reverie,
spectator, telegraphy.

IV. DERIVATION AND COMPOSITION

92. Root, and Root-word.—Having considered the nature of the sounds of which words are composed, let us in the next place ascertain some of the means by which new words are formed.

Every language has for its basis a number of syllables, each of which expresses some fundamental idea in its simplest form; for instance, to all of the following words:

love, loves, loved, loving, lovely, lovable, beloved,

the syllable *lov* is common. It represents the fundamental idea in all these words, and from it various words are formed by modifications or additions. Such a syllable is called a **root**, and the simplest word which contains it, as *love* in this case, is called a **root-word**.

Such words as *love, hate, fear, dry, hard, long, sky, man, house*, are examples of root-words.

93. Formation of New Words.—When we require to form a new word from an existing root, we generally do so in one of the following ways:

(a) By modifying the form of the root-word, either by a change in the body of the word or by the addition of a syllable at the beginning or the end of the word. Such a change in the form of a word is known as **derivation**, and a word formed by derivation is known as a **derivative**.

(b) By combining two or more root-words or derivatives so as to form a single word. The process of thus combining separate words is known as **composition**, and the new word formed by composition is known as a **compound**.

V. DERIVATION

94. Derivation. (1) By Change in Vowel Sound.—

Many derivatives are formed through changes in the vowel sounds of their root-words, sometimes accompanied with changes in the consonants also; thus,

burn > brown; bite > bait; rise > raise.

NOTE: We use the sign > to indicate that the word following is derived from the word preceding the sign.

But the greater number of derivatives are formed by adding something either to the beginning or to the end of the root-word.

(2) **By Suffix.**—The addition which we make to the end of a root to form a derivative is known as a **suffix**. The following are examples of derivatives formed by means of suffixes:

coldness, deadly, mirthful, boyhood.

NOTE:—In such words as *colder*, *coldest*, the endings *er*, and *est*, are usually considered as suffixes rather than inflectional endings; likewise, in such words as *taking*, *taken*, the endings *ing*, and *en*, are also usually considered as suffixes. *Colder* and *coldest* are thus derivatives of *cold*; so also *taking* and *taken* are derivatives of *take*.

EXERCISE 23

(a) *Analyse the following into root-words and suffixes:*

darling, godhead, courteous, spinster, islet, artist, kindred, European, sailors, nethermost, drainage, rookery, believing.

(b) *Form a derivative from each of the following words by the addition of a suffix:*

law, sweet, gold, brass, saint, Canada, friend, winter, water, break, lamb, wed, stream, hate, count, jewel, hill, eat, rose, black, nun.

(3) **By Prefix.**—The addition which we make to the beginning of the root to form a derivative is known as a **prefix**. The following are examples of derivatives formed by means of prefixes:

aboard, mislead, endear.

EXERCISE 24

(a) *Analyse the following into root-words and prefixes:*
 ✓ forgive, withstand, undue, encourage, displease, extraordinary, mistake, unbelief, overlook, inconvenience, underestimate, prefix.

(b) *Form a derivative from each of the following words by the addition of a prefix:*

✓ patience, turn, shore, bid, lay, trust, ever, run, manly, do, hold, bitter, siege, cover, bear, date, worker, ease, danger, human, midst.

EXERCISE 25

(a) *Using Appendix VI for reference, state the force of the prefix in each of the following:*

unwise, unroll, recall, bespeak, inborn, injudicious, forget, confuse, mislead, forewarn.

(b) *Add to each of the following words a prefix which reverses the meaning:*

contented, enviable, proper, pleasant, accurate, oblige, natural, visible, like, polite, appear, true.

(4) **By Both Prefix and Suffix.**—A derivative may be formed by means of both prefix and suffix, or by means of more than one prefix or suffix; thus,

un-kind-ness, en-light-en-ment, un-mis-tak-able.

EXERCISE 26

(a) *Using Appendix VI for reference, show the force of each of the following prefixes and suffixes. From what language does it come? Give a word in illustration of its use.*

(1) Prefixes: contra, sub, un, in, mis, extra, sym, arch, ab, en.

(2) Suffixes: ish, dom, ock, or, hood, ster, let, ness, ly, ry.

(b) *Form a derivative from each of the following by the addition of prefixes, or of suffixes, or of both:*

hot, fresh, absent, real, dear, gentle, dark, high, wild, notice, mountain, nature, speak, man, earth.

(5) **By Prefix or Suffix together with Vowel Change.**—Furthermore, in forming certain derivatives we not only add a prefix or suffix, but also change the vowel sound of the root; thus,

long—length; goose—gosling.

EXERCISE 27

(a) *Form a derivative from each of the following by a change of vowel sound, with or without the addition of a suffix:*

deep, lie, hale, glass, wide, daze, long, gleam, wade, high, sit, dear.

(b) *Give the root-words of the following derivatives:*

shadow, ditch, drought, month, burden, vixen, gift, filth, wander, throttle, theft.

NOTE:—The derivative formed by the addition of a prefix or a suffix is frequently used as a different part of speech from the original word. Thus, *courage* is generally used as a noun; *encourage* as a verb; *encouragement* as a noun.

EXERCISE 28

(a) *By the addition of suffixes form adjectives from the following words, which are commonly used as nouns:*

China, glory, slave, chivalry, silver, Italy, brute, quarrel, Jove, mirth, grace, churl, fashion, brass, trouble.

(b) *The following words are ordinarily used as adjectives. By the addition of prefixes or suffixes convert them into verbs:*

large, pure, high, dim, clean, little, dear, just, strong, clear, dark.

(c) *By the addition of suffixes form adverbs from the following words:*

cheery, home, head, one, other, hearty, like, up, dark, faithful.

95. Hybrids.—When a root is of Anglo-Saxon origin, in forming a derivative we usually add a suffix or a prefix of Anglo-Saxon origin also. Similarly when the root is Latin we usually add a Latin suffix or prefix. We have in English, however, a few derivatives of which the suffix or prefix comes from a different language from the root. Such words are called **hybrids**. Examples are:

unjust—formed from the word *just* of Latin origin, and the Anglo-Saxon prefix *un*.

misuse—formed from the word *use* of Latin origin, and the Anglo-Saxon prefix *mis*.

96. Change of Function without Change of Form.—Sometimes, however, instead of adding a prefix or a suffix we give a word an additional meaning and change its function without any change in its form. For instance *head* is generally a noun, but when we say, “You *head* the list”; we use the word *head* as a verb, to express action. In this case the use of *head* as a verb is derived from its use as a noun, without any change of form.

EXERCISE 29

Name the parts of speech to which each of the following words usually belongs, and in each case construct a sentence to show that it may be transferred to another class without alteration in form:

warm, salt, post, book, picture, fish, fear, notice, up.

EXERCISE 30

Translate into a derivative each of the following phrases:

(1) To lead in a wrong direction, not clean, one who drinks greatly, a king’s realm, a condition of servitude, one who writes, the condition of a child, to make new again, the race of man, the quality of being wild, one who bears testimony, made of

lead, of the nature of a child, somewhat green, not possessing teeth, to daze often, to stray often.

(2) That cannot be counted, to make great, pertaining to the sun, the act of looking under, belonging to the country, the act of joining together, feeling for others, given to visions, the rule of the people, the rule of the rich, the rule of the best, the rule of the few, one's life written by one's self, one who lives in a place.

VI. COMPOSITION

97. Compounds: Relations of Root-words.—If we examine such compounds as:

freeman, high-born, headache, grindstone, coal-black;

we find that the root-words that are joined together to form compounds are related to each other in various ways. In such words as *freeman* and *high-born*, the relation is very simple, and the root-words would appear in the same order if they were written as separate words. On the other hand, in such words as *headache* (an *ache* in the *head*), *grindstone* (a *stone* that *grinds*), *coal-black* (as *black* as *coal*), the relation between the root-words forming the compounds is more peculiar, and there is greater condensation of expression.

If, furthermore, we consider the nature of the compound we shall find that both as to meaning and pronunciation, it generally differs in some respects from the root-words taken separately. For instance, when we compare,

a hothouse,—and *a hot house*,
a blackbird,—and *a black bird*,

we find not only that the compound has a more definite meaning than its elements taken separately, but that one of the elements of the compound is strongly stressed, whereas when the elements are taken separately they are almost equally stressed. And if, by way of illustration, we compare,

forehead, with *fore head*,
breakfast, with *break fast*,
cupboard, with *cup board*,

we find that other changes in pronunciation have taken place.

Sometimes also the root-words forming the compound undergo a change of form as well as of meaning and pronunciation; for example:

holy day > holiday,
 well come > welcome,
 dumb found (to strike dumb) > dumfound,
 Woden's Day > Wodensday > Wednesday.

And in the case of some compounds the root-words have undergone so great changes that they are no longer recognized as independent words; for instance:

toad poll (toad head) > tadpole, day's eye > daisy,
 ort yard (herb yard) > orchard, housewife > huzzy,
 God's spell (news) > Gospel, do on > don.

98. Temporary and Permanent Compounds.—In the case of some compounds the root-words are only loosely joined together, and are separated by hyphens, as, for example,

breast-high, sea-green, well-bred.

Such combinations are called **temporary compounds**, because it is felt that their elements have not yet become so closely welded together that they may be written as one word. In the case of many compounds, however, the usage varies, and we find them written both with and without the hyphen.

NOTE:—We frequently find that one of the members of the temporary compound is a phrase, as, for instance, in,

man-of-war; ticket-of leave; cat-o'-nine-tails;

and we generally include among these phrasal compounds such expressions as *forget-me-not*.

Compounds whose elements have become permanently welded together are known as **permanent compounds**. The following are examples:

turnkey, windfall, quicksilver, browbeat

A compound one or more of whose elements is a derivative, is known as a **compound derivative**; examples are:

weather-beaten; long-suffering; half-heartedly.

EXERCISE 31

Divide the following compounds into two classes according as they are generally used as, (a) temporary compounds, (b) permanent compounds:

birthright, rockbuilt, fatherland, doorway, rainbow, water-bugs, ciderpress, snuffbox, therefore, worldwide, homespun, goodfornothing, inasmuch, squarecut, afternoon, neverfailing, framework, skyline, innkeeper, earthquake, tortoiseshell, grasshopper, postman, dewdrop, halfhidden, nicknamed, teapot, carfare.

EXERCISE 32

(a) Translate into phrases the following compounds, writing as temporary compounds those that should be so written:

sheepdog, seacoast, deafmute, merchanttailor, wolfdog, shepherd, pathway, forgetmenot, bedridden, thunderstruck, bloodshed, fieldmouse, lifetime, grasshopper, mainspring, headstrong, footway.

(b) Express by a compound each of the following phrases:

As high as one's breast, a man who acts as servant, a woman who begs, a shaking of the ground, one who kills a man, one who goes to church, a high estimation of one's self, as black as coal, looking like death, tearing the heart.

GENERAL EXERCISE

State whether the italicized expressions in the following passage are compounds or derivatives, and analyse them so as to show their formation:

Noon by the north clock! noon by the east! High noon, too, by these hot *sunbeams* which fall, scarcely *aslope*, upon

my head, and almost make the water bubble and smoke in the trough under my nose. Truly, we public characters have a rough time of it! And among all the public characters chosen at the March *meeting*, where is he that sustains, for a single year, the burden of such *manifold* duties as are imposed in perpetuity upon the Town Pump?

At this sultry *noontide* I am *cup-bearer* to the parched populace, for whose benefit an iron goblet is chained to my waist. Like a *dram-seller* on the mall, at *muster-day* I cry aloud to all and sundry in my *plainest* accents, and at the very *tip-top* of my voice, "Here it is, *gentlemen!* here is the good liquor! Walk up—walk up, gentlemen! walk up! walk up! Here is the superior stuff! Here is the unadulterated ale of Father Adam—better than Cognac, Hollands, Jamaica, strong beer, or wine of any price. Here it is, by the *hogshead* or the single glass, and not a cent to pay! Walk up, gentlemen! walk up, and help yourselves!"

It were a pity if all this *outcry* should draw no customers. Here they come! A hot day, gentlemen! Quaff, and away again, so as to keep yourselves in a nice, cool sweat! You, my friend, will need *another cupful*, to wash the dust out of your throat, if it be as thick there as it is on your *cowhide* shoes. I see you have trudged half a score of miles to-day, and, like a wise man, have passed by the taverns and stopped at the running brooks and *well-curbs*. *Otherwise*, betwixt heat without and fire within, you would have been burned to a cinder, or melted down to *nothing* at all, in the fashion of a *jelly-fish!*

CHAPTER VI

THE NOUN

I. CLASSIFICATION

99. Proper and Common Nouns.—We have defined the noun as a word, or group of words, used in a sentence as the name of anything; thus,
dog, star, courage, Quebec.

Now if we examine the nouns in such sentences as the following:

Toronto is a city in Canada;
Plants, as well as animals, breathe;

we find that some are used to represent things as individuals, while others are used to represent things as members of a class. *Toronto*, for instance, is the special name given to a particular object; but it is not a *significant* word, that is, it does not suggest any of the characteristics of the object named. *Plants*, on the other hand, is a name which is common to a large number of objects possessing certain similar characteristics. It is a significant word, that is, it suggests the characteristics of the objects named.

As a matter of fact, in any sentence we find that the noun is used either as the special name of a particular object or as the name which is common to all the objects of a certain class. A noun which is used as a special name is known as a **proper noun**. (*Proper* means "belonging to," or "being the property of," a thing) A noun which is used as a common name is known as a **common noun**.

NOTE:—The uses of nouns as proper and common tend to shade into one another. For example, *Milton* is generally used as a proper noun; but when we say, "Some mute, inglorious Milton here may rest"; we use this word as a common noun. In like manner, the word *tower* is generally used as a common noun; but when we speak of "The Tower," meaning "The Tower of London," we use it as a proper noun.

Besides the classification of nouns as proper and common, there are several other classifications of sufficient importance to require mention:

100. Concrete and Abstract Nouns.—Some nouns are names of qualities, conditions, and relations which have no real existence apart from the objects that possess them; thus,

distance, colour, rectitude, frailty, nearness, sweetness.

Such nouns as *distance*, *colour*, and so on, are called **abstract** nouns, because in each case we abstract (that is, “draw off,” “separate”) in our minds the notion of the quality and attribute from the notion of the object to which it belongs, and think of it by itself as if it had a separate existence.

In contradistinction to abstract nouns, the names of objects which have a real and separate existence outside of our own minds are called **concrete**. (*Concrete* means “formed into one whole,” “considered in all their properties together.”)

101. Collectives.—Some nouns signify, not any single thing, but a collection, or a certain number, of single things. Such nouns may be described as **collectives**. Examples are:

army, flock, school-board, legislature, senate.

EXERCISE 33

Arrange the following names in columns under the headings, proper, common, concrete, abstract, and collective nouns. The same noun may appear in more than one column.

apple	conscience	Japan	quarrel
beauty	country	learning	regiment
bishop	depth	Martin Luther	Saturday
Broadway	Emily	motion	taskmaster
chair	folly	Napoleon	ugliness
child	giant	peace	Vancouver
choir	iron	priest	water.

EXERCISE 34

Classify the nouns in the following passages as in the preceding exercise:

(a) Taddeo Gaddi built me; I am old,
Five centuries old; I plant my foot of stone
Upon the Arno as St. Michael's own
Was planted on the dragon. Fold by fold
Beneath me as it struggles I behold
Its glistening scales. Twice hath it overthrown
My kindred and companions. Me alone
It moveth not, but is by me controlled.
I can remember when the Medici
Were driven from Florence; longer still ago,
The final wars of Ghibelline and Guef.
Florence adorns me with her jewelry;
And when I think that Michael Angelo
Hath leaned on me, I glory in myself.

(b) With favouring winds, o'er sunlit seas,
We sailed for the Hesperides,
The land where golden apples grow;
But that, ah! that was long ago.

How far, since then, the ocean streams
Have swept us from the land of dreams,
That land of fiction and of truth,
The lost Atlantis of our youth!

Whither, ah, whither? Are not these
The tempest-haunted Hebrides,
Where sea-gulls scream, and breakers roar,
And wreck and seaweed line the shore?

Ultima Thule! Utmost Isle!
Here in thy harbours for a while
We lower our sails; a while we rest
From the unending, endless quest.

II. CLASSIFICATION: GENDER NOUNS

102. Gender: Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.—Some nouns, again, mark the things signified by them as male or female; thus,

man, woman; son, daughter; actor, actress; hero, heroine.

Such nouns are called **gender** nouns. (*Gender*, in older English, means “a kind, class, or sex.”) And those gender-nouns that signify male beings are called **masculine** nouns, or nouns of the masculine gender; while those that signify female beings are called **feminine** nouns, or nouns of the feminine gender.

All other nouns—those that are not gender nouns, and have nothing to do with defining sex—are called **neuter** nouns, or nouns of the neuter gender, (that is, that represent objects “neither of one sex nor of the other”). Either they belong to objects that have no sex, like *sun*, *day*, *virtue*; or they are given indifferently to beings of both sexes; as, *child*, *bird*, *hound*. Words such as *child*, *bird*, *hound*, are sometimes described as being of **common** gender.

Gender in Modern English is, therefore, strictly speaking, the distinction of words as masculine or feminine, corresponding to the distinction of living objects as male or female. The distinction, however, is of practical importance only so far as concerns the proper use of the pronouns of the third person and their derivatives, and in describing a noun there is no need to say anything about gender unless the noun actually implies a distinction of sex.

103. Gender: How Shown.—A distinction of sex is indicated in common nouns in three ways:

(1) By the use of different words. Examples are:

buck, doe; boy, girl; stag, hind; brother, sister; monk, nun.

(2) By masculine gender-nouns, and by feminine gender-nouns derived therefrom by means of suffixes (-*ess* is the only one by which fresh feminines are now formed). Examples are:

hero, heroine; baron, baroness; duke, duchess.

But words, imperfectly naturalized, retain their original forms. Examples are:

Lat., testatrix < testator; *Slav.*, czarina < czar;
Fr., belle < beau; *Arab.*, sultana < sultan;
Ital., signora < signor(e); *Span.*, donna < don.

(3) By compounding the pronoun *he* or *she*, or gender-nouns, with nouns or adjectives. Examples are:

he-goat, she-goat; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow;
 landlord, landlady; gentleman, gentlewoman.

From *bride* we have *bridegroom* by adding the word *groom*, meaning "man."

A distinction corresponding to gender in common nouns is also made in the case of Christian names, generally by the use of different names; thus,

John, Thomas, James; Margaret, Kate, Isabella;

and occasionally by the use of feminine derivative forms; thus,

Paul, Pauline; George, Georgina; Henry, Henrietta.

EXERCISE 35

Write the corresponding gender forms of the following nouns:

author	fox	laundress	signor
bachelor	gander	lioness	sorceress
belle	governor	man-servant	steer
bride	heroine	marquis	stepson
colt	he-wolf	monk	sultan
countess	horse	Mr.	uncle
czar	Joseph	negro	widow
donna	lady	niece	witch
duke	lass	nymph	youth.

III. INFLECTED FORMS: NUMBER

As already pointed out, nouns are inflected to show differences of number and of case.

104. Formation of Plurals.—English nouns regularly form their plurals by the addition of an *s*-sound, or an *es*-sound, to the singular; thus,

dog-dogs; horse-horses; lass-lasses.

But sometimes the addition of the regular plural inflection is accompanied by other changes:

(1) Nouns ending in *f* generally change the *f* to *v*, and add *es*:

knife-knives; leaf-leaves; half-halves.

But a few nouns ending in *f* form the plural in the regular way; thus,

chief-chiefs; fife-fifes.

(2) Nouns in everyday use, ending in *y* after a consonant, generally change *y* to *i* and add *es*; thus,

lady-ladies; pony-ponies; soliloquy-soliloquies.

But nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel, add *s* without further change; thus,

valley-valleys; chimney-chimneys; essay-essays.

(3) In the case of nouns in everyday use, ending in *o*, usage is divided. Some add *es*, as, for example,

cargo-cargoes; negro-negroes; echo-echoes.

Others add *s* only, as, for example,

piano-pianos; solo-solos.

(4) Letters and figures and quoted words generally form their plurals by adding an apostrophe and *s*, thus,

n-n's; 4-4's; and-and's

105. Old Forms.—A few nouns in common use still form their plurals according to methods which were common in Old English:

(1) By changing the vowel sound in the stem; thus,
man-men; goose-geese;

(2) By adding *en*; thus,
ox-oxen; child-children

NOTE: The words *brethren*, *children*, *kine*, are in reality double plurals, the older forms being,

Sing.: brother—Plu.: brether
child childer
cow kye.

106. Foreign Plurals.—A considerable number of words taken unchanged from foreign languages form their plurals according to the rules of those languages; thus,

formula—formulae
analysis—analyses
beau—beaux
bandit—banditti
seraph—seraphim.

NOTE:—In the case of a number of words belonging to this class the plural in *s* is also frequently used, and its use is becoming more common, as these words are becoming naturalized; thus,

formula — formulas
bandit — bandits
seraph — seraphs.

EXERCISE 36

Give the plural forms of the following nouns:

ally	elf	Mary	seraph
bench	fife	memento	solo
brother	gas	memorandum	stimulus
chateau	genius	mosquito	stratum
chimney	Henry	Mr.	tableau
chromo	hoof	negro	talisman
corps	James	omnibus	tomato
crisis	knife	phenomenon	volcano
curriculum	larva	piano	wish
desk	lily	+	worry
dynamo	loaf	roof	×
echo	madam	radius	zero.

107. **Exceptional Uses.**—Certain nouns have the same form with either singular or plural meaning; thus,

sheep, deer, perch, trout;

and, in some of their uses, also such words as,

dozen, ton, shot, heathen.

Certain classes of nouns also, are rarely used in the plural, especially proper nouns, abstract nouns, and nouns of material; thus,

John Smith, iron, charity, goodness.

NOTE:—Under certain circumstances some of these nouns do, however, take plural forms:

(1) Proper names are capable of forming plurals signifying individuals merely bearing the same name without any characteristics in common; as,

the Smiths and the Browns; all the Wednesdays;

or individuals resembling in characteristics the one to whom the proper name at first belonged; as,

the Miltons and the Shakespeares of our century.

(2) Most names of material are also used as names of articles made of that material, or as names of kinds of it, or masses of it, and so on; and as such, have plurals; thus,

a ship's coppers; the leads of a roof;

the clays and gravels of the West; the snows of winter.

(3) And a great many abstract nouns form plurals signifying the quality in separate acts or exhibitions; thus,

a good man's charities; the heats of summer;

the loves of the angels; the beauties of its form.

Some few nouns are used ordinarily in the plural form only, and most of these nouns have no singular form; thus,

thanks, wages, victuals, antipodes, spectacles, nuptials.

NOTE:—In the compounds, *wage-earner*, *spectacle-case*, *thank-offering*, the singular forms of these words are used. We find, also, the singular form *wage*, sometimes used by good writers as an independent word.

A few nouns also have no singular form; but are always construed as singular in meaning; thus,

billiards, news, measles, mathematics, physics, politics.

EXERCISE 37

Supply the correct verb form, "is" or "are," in the following sentences:

1. The wages of sin — death.
2. The assets of the firm — only a few thousand dollars.
3. No news — good news.
4. The summons of the court — heeded.
5. The tongs — lying on the floor.
6. The mumps — a contagious disease.
7. Politics — a subject of study in some universities.
8. The aborigines of this country — the North American Indians.
9. The thanks of the audience — due to the speaker.
10. The scissors — not at all sharp.
11. The data you have supplied — not sufficient to warrant a conclusion.
12. The proceeds — to be given to charity.
13. The odds — against him.
14. Draughts — a good game, and so — billiards.
15. Great riches — not always a blessing.

108. Plurals of Compounds.—Most compound nouns, in forming their plurals, add *s* to the last word; thus,
steamboats, mouthfuls, turnkeys, governor-generals.

In some cases, however, when the first word is more important, it takes the plural sign; thus,
hangers-on, brothers-in-law, runners-up.

Some few nouns pluralize both parts, after the French usage; thus,

knights-errants, lords-justices, knights-templars;
also,
men-servants, women-servants.

Proper names such as, *Mr. John Smith, Miss Smith*, may form their plurals in the usual way by adding *s* to the last word; as,

the Mr. John Smiths, the Miss Smiths;

or by using the plural form of the title, as,
the Messrs. John Smith, the Misses Smith.

EXERCISE 38

Write the plurals of the following compounds:

aide-de-camp	knight-errant	passer-by
billet-doux	lady-superintendent	Peter the Hermit
commander-in-chief	lieutenant-governor	poet-laureate
court-martial	looker-on	president-elect
ex-mayor	lord-justice	runaway
father-in-law	man-of-war	Smith, the baker
fellow-servant	Miss Black	tête-à-tête
foster-child	mouthful	Tom Brown
four-in-hand	Mr. Harper	will-o'-the-wisp.

IV. INFLECTED FORMS: CASE—THE NOMINATIVE,
AS SUBJECT

109. Inflection for Case.—As stated above (80), English nouns have three cases, the nominative, (or subjective), the possessive, and the objective; with, however, only two different forms, one for the possessive and the other for the nominative and the objective.

We have already considered the nature of the nominative and the objective cases in English (81). A few of the pronouns, we have seen, have both nominative and objective case forms; but all nouns and most pronouns, have but one form to represent both cases. We use the terms nominative and objective case, therefore, in speaking of nouns, in order to denote differences in their function or in their relation to other words in the sentence, rather than differences in form.

We shall now consider the various constructions in which the noun is said to be in the nominative case, and it will be to our advantage to consider, at the same time, the use of the pronoun in these constructions.

110. Nominative, Subject of a Verb.—The noun or the pronoun is said to be in the nominative case when it is used as subject of a verb; thus,

The *stream* runs fast;

O! the wild charge *they* made!

NOTE:—Some grammarians prefer to use the term *subjective* instead of *nominative*, because the noun in this case is used more frequently as subject of a verb than in any other construction.

V. THE PREDICATE NOMINATIVE

111. Predicate Nominative Case.—In the sentences:

This is *he*;

He has become a great *scholar*;

No man seems a *hero* to his valet;

each of the verbs *is*, *has become*, *seems*, is completed by some pronoun or some noun which relates to the subject and is in the nominative case. Nouns and pronouns which are so used are said to be in the **predicate nominative** case. For a further description of the verbs which are usually completed by nouns or pronouns in the predicate nominative see (196).

NOTE:—In the sentence,

Demosthenes was an orator;

the noun *Demosthenes* represents an individual, while the noun *orator* represents a class. The sentence then simply states that the individual "Demosthenes" belonged to the class "orator." The noun in the predicate nominative is seldom, if ever, identical in meaning with the subject, but represents a larger class, to which the thing represented by the subject belongs.

EXERCISE 39

In the following sentences select the nouns in the predicate nominative and give their relation:

1. Old King Cole was a merry old soul.
2. I feel the same as I did years ago.
3. He remained a trustee for many years.
4. A fool sometimes appears a wise man, and the wise man sometimes appears a fool.
5. Herodotus is called the Father of History.

6. An old cloak makes a new jerkin.
7. The Lord is my song; he is become my salvation.
8. A white wall is the paper of a fool.
9. Blazing London seemed a second Troy.
10. How an acorn becomes an oak is a mystery of Nature.

VI. NOMINATIVE IN APPPOSITION

112. Meaning of Apposition.—In the sentence,

Shylock, the rich *Jew*, had a daughter named Jessica;

the noun *Jew* is used for the purpose of further describing the person for which the subject *Shylock* stands. It is not related to any other part of the sentence, and might be omitted without destroying the sentence structure. A noun or a pronoun which thus accompanies another noun or pronoun for the purpose of explaining or defining its meaning, is said to be in apposition (Lat. *appositus*,—"placed next to") with the noun or pronoun to which it is related, and the two nouns or pronouns are in the same case. The noun *Jew* in the foregoing sentence is therefore said to be in the nominative case in apposition with the noun *Shylock*. A noun in apposition generally follows the noun to which it relates; the phrase containing it is generally separated from the rest of the sentence by commas, and is generally read in a lower tone.

EXERCISE 40

In the following sentences select the nouns in apposition and state their relation:

1. The duke, my father, loved his father dearly.
2. Paul, the Apostle, was a Jew.
3. It is the lark, the herald of the morn.
4. The soul that rises with us, our life's star,
Hath elsewhere had its setting.
5. Highest queen of state, great Juno comes.

6. One thing, and one thing only, could make Charles dangerous,—a violent death.
7. You know what ill the author's life assails—
Toil, envy, want, the patron, and the jail.
8. The day returns to us, our sun and comforter.
9. Not as the conqueror comes, they, the true-hearted, came.
10. Who, to dumb forgetfulness a prey,
This pleasing, anxious being e'er resigned,
Left the warm precincts of the cheerful day,
Nor cast one longing, lingering look behind?

VII. NOMINATIVE OF ADDRESS

113. Nominative of Address.—In the sentences,

Come back, come back, Horatius!
Give me of your boughs, O Cedar;

the words *Horatius* and *Cedar* are used respectively to name the person and the thing directly addressed. Words which are used in this way are said to be in the **nominative of address**. Some languages have a special form known as the **vocative case**, for nouns which are used in address; but in English whenever we have occasion to use the inflected pronoun *thou* in address we use the nominative case form, and consequently we speak of nouns used in address as being also in the nominative.

NOTE:—Sometimes the noun in the nominative of address is used simply to indicate the person spoken to; for example:

John, come here instantly;

Sir, I entreat you home to dinner.

Very frequently, however, it is used to express some feeling, such as admiration, reproach, pity, etc., towards the person addressed, as, for example, in the following:

Hence, home, *you idle creatures*, get you home!

Ruffians, pitiless as proud,

Heaven awards the vengeance due.

And furthermore, the use of nouns in address must be carefully distinguished from their exclamatory use. Nouns used in exclamation may be treated as interjections; for example:

Ye gods! Must I endure all this?

VIII. NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE

114. Nominative Absolute Case.—In the sentence,

The storm having ceased, we continued our journey;
 the expression *The storm having ceased*, tells under what conditions “we continued our journey,” and is therefore adverbial. If we examine it we shall find that it is composed of the noun *storm*, modified by the participle *having ceased*. The noun *storm* in itself, however, does not depend for its case upon any other word in the sentence, and is said, therefore, to be used *absolutely*. When the pronoun is used absolutely the nominative case form is used; thus,

He being ill, I inquired for his master instead.

Consequently when we use the noun absolutely it is also said to be in the **nominative absolute** construction; and nouns or pronouns used absolutely are said to be in the nominative absolute case.

But although we speak of the noun or the pronoun as being in the nominative absolute, we must be careful to observe that a noun or a pronoun in this construction logically is not independent of the rest of the sentence, for, as we have seen, the phrase of which it forms a part stands in an adverbial relation to the main clause.

NOTE: 1. We have said that the phrase *The storm having ceased* in the above sentence is adverbial in value, modifying *continued*. If we wished we might express the same idea in an adverb clause, as, “When the storm had ceased”; and in a similar manner the majority of phrases containing nouns in the Nominative Absolute may be changed into adverb clauses; thus:

	<i>Their leader slain</i> , the mob dispersed;
becomes,	<i>When their leader was slain</i> , the mob dispersed;
and,	<i>Our friends having failed us</i> , we gave over the attempt;
becomes,	<i>Since our friends had failed us</i> we gave over the attempt.

We use the nominative absolute construction in preference to the adverb clause when we wish to secure either brevity or variety of expression.

2. Sometimes for the sake of further brevity the participle is omitted, as in the following:

The mountain towered above us, *height* (rising) *above height*;
He lay down, *his heart* (being) *heavy with sorrow*

EXERCISE 41

In each of the following sentences underline the noun or pronoun in the nominative absolute, and bracket the adverbial expression of which it forms a part:

1. The sun having risen, the ship set sail.
2. The rest must perish, their great leader slain.
3. The phantom knight, his glory fled,
Mourns o'er the field he heaped with dead.
4. Thus done the tales, to bed they creep.
5. The greater part of his fortune having been lost at sea,
he was forced at last to sell his estate.
6. The cheerful supper done, with serious face they round
the ingle form a circle wide.
7. Youth ended, I shall try my loss or gain thereby.
8. Sweet mercy, to the gates of Heaven
This minstrel lead, his sins forgiven.
9. Proudly riding o'er the azure realm,
In gallant trim the gilded vessel goes,
Youth at the prow and Pleasure at the helm.
10. His work well done,
His race well run,
His crown well won,
Here let him rest.
11. All things forgotten besides, they gave themselves up to
the maddening whirl of the dizzy dance.
12. And the Gospel ended, shall be said or sung this
creed, the people standing as before.

EXERCISE 42

In regard to each of the italicized nouns in the following sentences, state whether it is subject of a verb, predicate nominative, nominative of address, nominative in apposition, or nominative absolute. Give your reason in each case:

1. Charge, *Chester*, charge! On, Stanley, on!
2. All the *air* a solemn stillness holds.
3. My mind to me a *kingdom* is.
4. Hanging between two skies, a *cloud* with edges of silver, floated the boat.
5. The *ceremony* completed, the assembly soon dispersed.
6. She moves a *goddess* and she looks a queen.
7. Her modest *looks* a cottage might adorn.
8. My *son*, if sinners entice thee, consent thou not.
9. One man in his time plays many parts, his *acts* being seven ages.
10. Oft shall the pilgrim lift the latch
And share my meal, a welcome *guest*.

IX. THE OBJECTIVE CASE: OBJECT OF A VERB

115. Object of Verb or Preposition.—The noun or the pronoun is said to be in the objective case when it is used as object of a verb or of a preposition; thus,

He crossed the *stream*;

My golden *spurs* now bring to *me*.

Some verbs which do not usually take an object are followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case in certain constructions:

(a) **Reflexive and Reciprocal Object.**—The object may indicate that the person for which the subject stands performs the action upon himself. The object is then said to be **reflexive**; for example:

They sacrificed *themselves*.

Or it may indicate that among the persons or things for which the subject stands the action is mutual or reciprocal. The object is then said to be **reciprocal**; for example:

They purposely avoid *each other*.

(b) **Cognate Object**.—Sometimes the object and the verb are derived from the same root, so that the object expresses in noun form the same idea that has already been expressed by the verb; thus:

He *lived* a long *life*;

They *ran* *races* on the beach;

I have *fought* a good *fight*.

Such an object is said to be **cognate**, (Lat. *con*, "together," and *natus*, "born," that is, "having the same origin"). But the use of the term *cognate* has been extended so as to include all objects which express in noun form the same idea as has already been expressed by the verb, whether they are derived from the same root as the verb or not; thus:

He goes *errands*;

It rained *pitchforks*;

They looked *daggers* at us;

The streets ran *rivers* of blood.

NOTE:—In such sentences as,

He shouted his loudest (shout);

He breathed his last (breath);

He tried his hardest (trial);

the cognate noun is omitted and the adjective performs the function of the noun.

X. THE OBJECTIVE PREDICATE

116. Objective Predicate Case.—As we have already seen (111) a noun or a pronoun is said to be in the predicate nominative case when it is added to the verb, and is through the verb brought into relation to the *subject*. Now it is sometimes the case that a noun or pronoun is through the verb brought into a similar relation to the *object*. For instance, in the sentences,

I consider him the *leader*;

We called him a *coward*;

We knew it (to be) *them*;

the nouns *leader* and *coward* and the pronoun *them* (285) complete the verbs and relate to the objects of the verbs in their respective sentences. Nouns or pronouns which are used in this way are said to be in the **objective predicate** case.

NOTE:—Some grammarians prefer the term *predicate objective* to *objective predicate*, and as both terms have the same meaning, either may, of course, be used.

117. Objects of Factitive Verbs.—If now we further compare the sentences,

We considered him *leader*;

We chose him *leader*;

we find a difference in the character of the two constructions. In the second sentence the noun in the objective predicate represents a result of the action expressed by the verb; that is, his being *leader* is the result of his being *chosen*. In the first sentence, on the other hand, the noun in the objective predicate does not represent the result of the action expressed in the verb; that is, he may not be leader although he is *considered* so. A verb such as *chose*, in the second sentence, is said to be used in a **factitive** sense, that is, in the sense of making, or causing, or bringing about something by means of the act which the verb signifies; and a noun or pronoun in the objective predicate, completing a factitive verb, is also described as factitive. We say, therefore, that the noun *leader* in the second sentence is in the **factitive objective predicate** case, completing the verb *chose* and having the same case as the pronoun *him*.

EXERCISE 43

Select the nouns and pronouns in the following sentences, that are used in the objective predicate case, and give the relation of each:

1. I consider him a rogue.
2. The Romans elected Cæsar consul.

3. He styles himself an artist.
4. The House of Judah have anointed me king.
5. They hailed him father of a line of kings.
6. In Parthia did I take thee prisoner.
7. No bending knee will call thee Cæsar now.
8. When our actions do not, our fears do make us traitors.
9. I should count myself the coward,
If I left them, my Lord Howard.
10. This experience is what I call a piece of good luck.
11. Think nought a trifle, though it small appear;
Small sands the mountains, moments make the year,
And trifles life.
12. A philosopher was once consulted as to the best method
of destroying one's enemy. He replied, "Make him
your friend."

XI. OBJECTIVE IN APPPOSITION

118. Objective in Apposition.—We have already considered those constructions in which nouns or pronouns are said to be in apposition with other nouns or pronouns in the nominative case (112) and the same description will apply to the constructions in which nouns and pronouns are said to be objective in apposition, as in the following sentences:

Paradise Lost was written by Milton, the *poet*;
Before nightfall we reached the fort, a rude *building* constructed
chiefly of logs.

119. Distinguished from the Objective Predicate.—We must be careful to distinguish between the construction of the noun or the pronoun in the objective predicate, and that of the noun or the pronoun in the objective in apposition. Compare, for example, the following sentences:

Do you consider Shakespeare (to be) England's greatest *poet*?
Do you consider Shakespeare, England's greatest *poet*, to be
the author of The Sonnets?

In the first sentence the noun *poet* is in the objective predicate construction completing *consider* and having the same case as *Shakespeare*. In the second sentence the noun *poet* has no direct relation to the verb, and is merely in apposition with *Shakespeare*.

EXERCISE 44

Distinguish between the nouns which are objective in apposition and those which are in the objective predicate case in the following sentences:

1. They have elected your uncle mayor.
Yesterday I met your uncle the mayor.
2. The police think the prisoner a dangerous criminal.
The police are guarding the prisoner, a dangerous criminal.
3. Sir Samuel Baker discovered the Albert Nyanza, the source of the Nile.
Sir Samuel Baker discovered the Albert Nyanza (to be) the source of the Nile.
4. Cromwell appointed Milton Secretary of State.
Cromwell appointed Milton, the Secretary of State, to prepare his defence.
5. Have you heard Albani, the famous singer?
Do you consider Albani a famous singer?

XII. ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE

120. Adverbial Objective Case.—In the sentences,

He lives a long *distance* off;
Cowards die many *times* before their deaths;
This book is worth a *dollar*;

the words *distance*, *times*, and *dollar* are nouns which have also the value of adverbs, modifying the words *off*, *die*, and *worth* respectively. These nouns do not stand in the relations of either subject or object, and we cannot tell from their forms whether they should be described as being in the nominative or in the objective case. However, we know from a comparison

with similar constructions in Old English and other inflected languages, that if Modern English were inflected these nouns would have the objective case form. Hence, as they have the value of both nouns and adverbs they are said to be in the **adverbial objective** case.

Most of the nouns that are used in this way express measure of time, weight, value, etc., but some nouns in the adverbial objective express time *at* which an action takes place; and a few are used even to express manner, as in,

Have it your own *way*;
He was bound *hand* and foot;
He sent *post-haste*.

Nouns which are used as adverbs may modify either verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Examples are:

(1) With verbs:

They walked a *mile*;
He ran full *speed*.

(2) With adjectives:

This field is three *acres* larger than that;
You don't look a *day* older.

(3) With adverbs:

This house is a great *deal* better built than that;
I leave town a *month* from to-day.

EXERCISE 45

Select the nouns that are in the adverbial objective case, and give the relation of each:

1. These reasons are not worth a straw.
2. He lay full length on the floor.
3. Waves mountains high, broke over the reef.
4. The bird of dawning singeth all night long.
5. Beauty is only skin deep.
6. Three years she grew in sun and shower.
7. A train ten cars long passed the station.

8. They refused point blank to come with us.
9. The silent man need never care a feather for all the world.
10. A bowshot from her bower eaves
He rode between the barley sheaves.

XIII. THE INDIRECT OBJECT

121. Indirect Object.—In the sentences,

He made a *coat*;
He offered *assistance*;

the nouns *coat* and *assistance* are known as *direct* objects because they name the things which are *directly* affected by the action expressed by the verbs which govern them. If we say, however,

They made the *man* a coat;
He offered *us* assistance;

the words *man* and *us* name the persons *to* or *for* whom the action was performed. This appears clearly enough when we change the place of the words in question, putting them after the direct object. We are then obliged by custom to use prepositions; thus,

They made a coat *for the man*;
He offered assistance *to us*.

Such a second object is called an *indirect* object, because it represents what is less directly affected by the action denoted by the verb, and because the same relation may be, and often is, expressed by prepositions, namely, by *to*, or, more rarely, by *for*. But, although we may use *to* and *for* in expressing the relation of the indirect object, we must not make the mistake of supposing that a *to* or *for* is left out, and is to be “understood.” The case is not, indeed, like the possessive, now distinguished by an ending of its own; but it was so formerly. And, (as also in Latin and Greek), the old inflected form of the indirect ob-

jective was called the **dative**; and that of the direct objective, the **accusative**.

EXERCISE 46

In the following sentences point out the nouns and the pronouns which are objects of verbs, and state whether they are direct or indirect objectives:

1. Give me liberty or give me death.
2. It is an ill wind that blows nobody good.
3. I have done the state some service.
4. Promise me life and I'll confess the truth.
5. Upon the Lupercal I thrice presented him a kingly crown.
6. One moment now may give us more
Than years of toiling reason.
7. We will give what you say due consideration.
8. He gives his parents much anxiety.
9. I never did thee harm; why wilt thou slay me?
10. The blackbird has fled to another retreat,
Where the hazels afford him a screen from the heat.

XIV. DOUBLE DIRECT OBJECTS

122. Double Direct Objects.—We have already considered the constructions in which the verb is completed by two objects, one direct and the other indirect. We must carefully distinguish these constructions from those in which the verb is completed by two direct objects.

If, for example, we compare the sentences:

He paid his *servant* his *wages*;

He struck his *servant* a *blow*;

we find that in the first sentence the object *servant* is indirect and the object *wages*, direct; whereas in the second sentence both objects are direct. In this second sentence the noun *servant* names the direct object of the action, whereas the noun *blow* is in reality a cognate object.

123. **Summary.**—If now, by way of summary, we consider once again the various uses of nouns or pronouns in the objective case, which we have described, we shall see that there are at least five different constructions in which the verb may be completed by two objects. The following are examples:

1. Samuel anointed (David) (king);
(*direct object*), (*objective predicate*).
2. At Cambridge I met (Longfellow) (the poet);
(*direct object*), (*objective in apposition*).
3. My friend Brown sold (that house) (last week);
(*direct object*), (*adverbial objective*).
4. The judge gave (the prisoner) (his liberty);
(*indirect object*), (*direct object*).
5. They led (him) (a hard life);
(*direct object*), (*direct object, cognate*).

EXERCISE 47

Explain the character of the double objectives in each of the following sentences:

1. He ran a *hotel* last summer.
2. This cloth costs a *dollar* a yard.
3. Intemperance makes a *man* a fool.
4. The children of Israel did eat *manna* forty years.
5. Let us bang these *dogs* of Seville, the *children* of the devil.
6. Sorrow breaks seasons and reposing hours,
Makes the *night morning*, and the noontide night.
7. Call *me* not fool till heaven hath sent *me* fortune.
8. In thy right hand lead with thee
The mountain *nymph*, sweet *liberty*.
9. The Senate have concluded to give this *day* a crown to mighty Cæsar. If you shall send *them word* you will not come, their minds may change.
10. How sweet and gracious even in common speech,
Is that fine sense *which* men call *Courtesy*!
Wholesome as air and general as the light,

Welcome in every clime as breath of flowers,
 It transmutes aliens into trusting friends,
 And gives its *owner passport* round the globe.

124. Passive Constructions.—In each of the sentences in the preceding section the subject of the verb represents the doer of the action expressed by the verb; and, as we shall see hereafter, when the verb is used to express the doing of an action it is said to be *active*. Each sentence, however, may be reconstructed so that the subject will represent the receiver of the action, and the verb may express the suffering or receiving of the action. In this construction the verb is said to be *passive*. Let us change each of the above five sentences from the active to the passive construction, and see how the case of each of the nouns in the objective is affected.

When the change is made:

Sentence (1) Samuel anointed	BECOMES	David was anointed
David <i>king</i> ;		<i>king</i> by Samuel.

In the active, *king* is in the objective predicate relation; in the passive it is in the predicate nominative relation.

Sentence (2) At Cambridge, I	BECOMES	Longfellow, the <i>poet</i> ,
met Longfellow, the		was met by me
<i>poet</i> ;		at Cambridge.

In the active, *poet* is objective in apposition; in the passive it is nominative in apposition.

Sentence (3) My friend Brown	BECOMES	That house was sold
sold that house		last <i>week</i> by my
last <i>week</i> ;		friend Brown.

Week is in the adverbial objective relation in both the active and the passive.

Sentence (4) The judge gave	BECOMES	The prisoner was
the prisoner his		given his <i>liberty</i> by
<i>liberty</i> ;		the judge.

however, the apostrophe and *s* may both be added; thus, *James's teacher*; *the princess's retinue*.

Nouns in the plural ending in *s*, add the apostrophe only; thus, *the ladies' dresses*; *the boys' books*.

Nouns in the plural not ending in *s* add the apostrophe and *s*, after the analogy (319) of singular nouns; thus, *the men's voices*; *the children's hats*.

126. The Phrasal Possessive.—Most of the relations expressed by the possessive case may also be expressed by the preposition *of* followed by the noun, which may be described as the *phrasal possessive*; for example,

the flight *of the eagle*; the defeat *of Hannibal*; the poems *of Tennyson*.

NOTE: Very frequently it will be found that the inflected form and the phrasal form of the possessive may be used interchangeably. It does not matter, for instance, whether we speak of *Napoleon's defeat*, or *the defeat of Napoleon*. In the expression of ownership, however, we generally prefer to use the inflected form; thus, *Tom's hat*, and not, *the hat of Tom*. On the other hand the phrasal form is generally used in preference to the inflected form when the use of the latter would result in a harsh combination of sounds. We say, for instance, *the reign of William of Orange*; *the teachings of Socrates*, rather than *William of Orange's reign*; *Socrates' teachings*. There are, moreover, some relations expressed by the preposition *of* which cannot be expressed by means of the possessive case; for example:

a quire of paper; *a scream of delight*; *a city of refuge*.

EXERCISE 49

Give the possessive case forms of the following nouns:

box	goodness	ox	scissors
boy	Henry IV	Paris	sky
Charles	judges	piano	Tacitus
children	lady	pilgrims	valley
chimney	ladies	princess	violet
conscience	mistress	queen	woman
Darius	Moses	river	women
family	niece	rivers	Xerxes.

127. Possessive of Compounds.—Owing to the necessity for showing the relation of the expression as a

whole, the sign of the possessive is added at the end of a compound, of whatever kind it may be; thus, *his father-in-law's house*. The same rule is followed in the case of a combination of two names, of a name preceded by a title, of a noun preceded or followed by descriptive or limiting words, and so on; thus,

Mr. John Smith's house; Thomas Robinson, Esq.'s, residence;
his dead master Edward's memory.

Even when nouns are connected by *and* or *or*, the possessive sign is added only to the last of them when they form a compound notion; thus,

John and Mary's book; a fortnight or three weeks' time.

When, however, each object which the noun represents is referred to separately, the case-sign is repeated; thus,

John's and Mary's book; in Anne's or George's reign;
for two different books and two different reigns are here meant.

EXERCISE 50

Change the following expressions into the inflected form of the possessive:

1. The visit of the Prince of Wales.
2. The shops of the butcher and the baker.
3. The birthplace of Robert Burns.
4. The opinions of somebody else.
5. The plays of Beaumont and Fletcher.
6. The light of the moon and the stars.
7. The blindness of Milton, the poet.
8. The novels of Charles Dickens.
9. The success of either Yale or Harvard.
10. The residence of my cousin James.
11. The histories of Green and Macaulay.
12. The sports of the boys and girls.
13. The marriage of Miss Helen Jones.
14. The extravagance of Mr. and Mrs. Blank.
15. The cruelty of Judge Jeffries.

XVI. THE POSSESSIVE: RELATIONS

128. Denoting Ownership.—The Possessive case, as the name indicates, is most commonly used to denote ownership or possession; thus,

the children's toys; the lion's mane; Tennyson's poems.

It must be understood, however, that the word "possession" is here used in its widest sense, to denote certain other relations besides that of mere ownership. When, for instance, we speak of *a giant's strength*, we imply that strength is an attribute of a giant; when we speak of *Solon's laws* we imply that Solon is the source or author of the laws; when we speak of *the tree's branches* we imply that the branches are a part of the tree. Strictly speaking, we cannot say with reference to any of these expressions that the noun in the possessive case denotes ownership, but we may extend the meaning of the word *possession* to include all relations similar to the above.

129. Double Possessives.—We sometimes make use of another form of expression, which is really a combination of the possessive case and the construction with *of*, and is known accordingly as the **double possessive**; thus,

a speech of Gladstone's; a servant of my uncle's.

If we compare the following expressions:

A servant of my uncle's;
My uncle's servant;
A servant of my uncle;

we shall find a difference in meaning. The first expression (the double possessive) suggests that my uncle has more than one servant, and we might say instead, "One of my uncle's servants"; the two latter expressions, of course, do not necessarily imply more than one servant.

Furthermore, if we compare the expressions,

A picture of John;
John's picture;
A picture of John's;

we find still another distinction in meaning owing to the fact that in the expression "A picture of John" the word *picture* can only mean *likeness*, whereas the other two expressions may be taken to imply ownership also.

XVII. OTHER FORMS OF NOUNS

130. Other Words Used as Nouns.—Words and groups of words that are not generally used as nouns may sometimes have the value of nouns. The following is a list of the chief classes of words that may be so used:

1. Adjectives: Avoid the *wrong*; choose the *right*;
The *virtuous* alone are happy;
He reads *Chinese* fluently.
2. Adverbs: I have not seen him since *then*;
He has returned from *abroad*.
3. Infinitives: *Seeing* is *believing*; *To live* honestly is the duty of all.
4. Phrases: He did not arrive till *toward morning*.
5. Clauses: *What you say* is untrue;
Whoever comes will be welcome.
6. Expressions
quoted: *By and by* means *never*;
"If" is a dangerous word;
The saddest of words are, "*It might have been.*"

EXERCISE 51

Select the words and groups of words in the following sentences that are used as nouns and give the relation of each:

1. Must is a king's word.
2. Farthest from him is best.
3. What's ever seen is never seen.

4. "No, no," says "aye"; and "twice away," says "stay."
5. To be wise in his own eyes is the mark of a fool.
6. The best is not too good for you.
7. Well begun is good, but well done is better.
8. Too far east is west.
9. I do not believe what you say.
10. Something attempted, something done, hath earned a night's repose.
11. Coasting is a fine winter sport.
12. O me! the word "choose." I may neither choose whom I would nor refuse whom I dislike.
13. The blind receive their sight, and the lame walk, the lepers are cleansed, and the deaf hear, the dead are raised up, and the poor have the gospel preached to them.
14. When the Laconians were told by a certain potentate, "If I get into your town I will raze it to the ground," they sent but one word back in reply, "*If*."

XVIII. THE PARSING OF NOUNS

131. General Directions for Parsing.—When we state the classification (part of speech, class and sub-class), inflection, and relation of any word, we are said to *parse* it. (*Parse*, [Latin, *pars*, "a part"] literally means "to tell the part of speech.")

There are few difficulties connected with the ordinary parsing of an English word except those that concern its *classification*, and especially its *construction*, or *relation*; and very often it is sufficient to confine the parsing to these two points. In parsing, it is convenient to deal with the particulars in a certain order, but many constructions occur which cannot be described by means of set forms of expression; and wherever an irregularity or exceptional form occurs, it should be described concisely in suitable language.

Method of Parsing the Noun.—In parsing a noun it is usual to state the part of speech, number, case and

relation. The classification of nouns as common, proper, abstract, etc., is not generally considered of sufficient importance to be included in the parsing.

The following abbreviations may be used:

Singular	—Sing.	Plural	—Plu.
Nominative	—Nom.	Possessive	—Poss.
Objective	—Obj.	Subject	—Subj.
Predicate	—Pred.	Relation	—Rel.
Completing	—Compl.	Modifying	—Mod.

Example: Yon *cottage* seems a *bower* of bliss.

Cottage—Noun, Sing. Nom. Subj. of *seems*.

Bower—Noun, Sing. Pred. Nom. Compl. *seems*,
Rel. *cottage*.

GENERAL EXERCISE

Parse the italicized nouns in the following sentences:

A

1. There is no *armour* against Fate.
2. Britons never shall be *slaves*.
3. Come hither, *fellow*! Which *way* hast thou been?
4. God bless the narrow seas! I wish they were a whole *Atlantic* broad.
5. He has two essential parts of a courtier,—*pride* and ignorance.
6. *Soldier*, rest, thy *warfare* o'er,
Sleep the *sleep* that knows not breaking.
7. Don't remain a *fungus* or a sign-board, even if you were born that *way*.
8. Out of this nettle *danger* we pluck the flower safety.
9. Tompkins forsakes his last and awl
For literary squabbles;
Styles himself *poet*; but his trade
Remains the *same*,—he cobbles.
10. A *life* of writing, unless wondrous short,
No wit can brace, no genius can support;
Some soberer *province* for your business choose;
Be that your *helmet*, and your *plume* the muse.

B

1. The wind has blown a *gale* all *day*.
2. We were given *seats* in the front row.
3. He has hidden himself, the *rascal*!
4. Almost thou persuadest me to become a *Christian*.
5. Thee, *goddess*, thee *Britannia's* isle adores.
6. 'Tis hard to part when friends are dear;
Perhaps 'twill cost a *sigh*, a tear.
7. True hope is swift and flies with swallows' wings;
Kings it makes *gods*, and meaner creatures *kings*.
8. The *genius* making me no *answer*, I turned about to
address myself to him a second *time*.
9. Men called him but a shiftless *youth*,
In whom no good they saw;
And yet unwittingly, in sooth,
They made his careless words their *law*.
10. We were stopping before a shop in Regent Street where
were two *figures*, of Dante and Goethe. I said, "What
is there in old Dante's face that is missing in *Goethe's*?"
And Tennyson, whose profile then had certainly a
remarkable likeness to Dante's, said, "The *Divine*."

CHAPTER VII

THE PRONOUN

132. Classes: According to Meaning.—According to the differences of use and meaning, pronouns are classified as follows:

- | | |
|--------------------|-----------------|
| I Personal. | IV Conjunctive. |
| II Demonstrative. | V Indefinite. |
| III Interrogative. | |

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

133. Inflected Forms.—The personal pronouns of the first and second persons, in all their forms, are these:

	First Person		Second Person	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nom.	I	we	you (thou)	you (ye)
Obj.	me	us	you (thee)	you.

The personal pronouns are so called because they especially mark differences of person. The inflection of these pronouns is irregular; the plurals in the first person are quite different words from the singulars. Personal pronouns have no real possessive cases; and, in two instances, the objective is quite a different word from the nominative.

NOTE:—As the person speaking and the person spoken to are usually present to each other, gender distinctions are unnecessary in these pronouns, and they have consequently not been developed.

134. Possessive Pronouns.—The forms *my*, *thy*, *our*, and *your* are valued as pronominal adjectives rather than as possessive case forms, and will accordingly be considered in the following chapter.

The longer forms *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, and *yours* are valued as adjectives when they are used to modify nouns or pronouns; thus,

my house; *thine* enemy; this farm is *ours*; the reward is *yours*.

When, however, they do not modify another word, and are used in the ordinary case constructions of the noun or pronoun, they may be described as **possessive pronouns**; thus,

My affairs are unfortunate; *yours* are prosperous;

There breathes not clansman of thy line

But would have given his life for *thine*.

135. Special Uses.—The regular uses of the personal pronouns present little difficulty, but the following points should be considered:

(a) The pronouns *we* and *us* are used by the speaker when he wishes to include besides himself the other members of the group to which he belongs; thus,

We (I and my companions) took a long walk;

We (Canadians) are proud of our country.

Such persons as sovereigns, editors, and clergymen, sometimes use the pronouns *we* and *us* officially to include not only themselves but the group of persons whom they represent, or whose opinions they may be supposed to express, in their official position; thus,

We, the governor-general of Canada;

We will ourself in person to this war. (King Rich. II).

(b) The pronouns *thou* and *thee* in the singular, and the pronoun *ye* in the plural, are used only in scripture and in poetry, or in solemn or impassioned language; thus,

Even from everlasting to everlasting *Thou* art God;

Hail to thee, blithe spirit! Bird *thou* never wert;

I am the vine; *ye* are the branches;

Ye blessed creatures! I have heard the call

Ye to each other make.

(c) The pronoun *you* is the usual pronoun of address, both nominative and objective, whether we speak to one person or to more than one. Since it was originally a plural pronoun, when it is subject of a sentence it requires a verb in the plural, even though only one person is addressed.

(d) In the sentences,

We men have our tasks to perform;

You blocks, *you* stones, *you* worse than senseless things!

the pronouns *We* and *You* cannot well be separated from the nouns which follow them. The pronoun and noun together form but one notion. On the one hand the pronoun has a demonstrative value; and on the other hand the noun limits the application of the pronoun in much the same way as a noun in apposition. The relation between the pronoun and noun is closer, however, than between the nouns or pronouns in the ordinary appositive construction.

EXERCISE 52

Supply the proper form of pronoun in each of the following sentences, with reasons:

(a) *I, me.*

1. He is not so old as —.
2. It was — whom you saw.
3. They knew it to be —.
4. They knew it was —.
5. If it were — I would not go.
6. Between you and — he is mistaken.
7. Tom expected to meet you and — this morning.
8. It might have been — whom you heard speaking.
9. Every one has been invited but you and —.
10. Which of us do you think should stay at home, Mary or —?

(b) *we, us.*

1. It was — whom you met.
2. — girls have finished our work.
3. They knew it to be —.
4. It might have been — whom you heard.
5. The boys arrived sooner than —.
6. They were as much to blame as —.
7. Everyone walked to church except —.
8. The best of — boys will be promoted.
9. He thought it to be — whom he met yesterday.
10. It is better for people such as — not to express an opinion.

II. DEMONSTRATIVES OF THE THIRD PERSON

136. Inflections.—The pronouns *he, she, it, and they*, which are used for persons and things spoken of, are, strictly speaking, demonstrative in function, (*demonstrative* means “pointing out”), and are best described as **demonstrative pronouns of the third person.**

The complete declension of these pronouns is as follows:

	Singular		Plural	
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	
Nom.	he	she	it	they
Obj.	him	her	it	them.

137. Possessive Forms.—As in the case of *my, mine*, etc., (133), the forms *his, her, hers, its, their, and theirs* are here valued as pronominal adjectives when they are used to modify a noun or pronoun. These words are, as a matter of fact, derived from old English pronominal adjectives, and when they are used to modify a noun or pronoun we feel that they are more largely adjectival than pronominal in function.

The forms *his, hers*, and *theirs* are, however, sometimes used in the ordinary constructions of the noun

or pronoun, and are then described as possessive pronouns; thus,

Both my friends and *hers* had heard of our misfortune;
My true love hath my heart and I have *his*.

138. Gender Forms.—The demonstrative of the third person has three gender forms for the singular, but we make no distinctions in the plural, because a number of persons may include both sexes. By the use of *he* and *she* in the singular, we mark a distinction of sex:

(1) In those creatures which evidently have sex, or in which the difference of sex is an important matter, and especially in human beings.

(2) Sometimes in personified objects, that is, in those which, though we know they are not persons, we yet talk about as if they possessed sex. Thus, we speak of the sun as *he*, and of the moon, or the earth, or a ship, as *she*.

The general principles that govern personification are as follows:

(1) Things remarkable for, or associated with the notion of, strength, violence, superiority, majesty, or sublimity, are regarded as male; for example: death, war, the sun, the ocean, winter, anger, heaven.

(2) Things which possess gentleness, beauty, and grace, or productiveness, or which are the objects of affection or care, are regarded as female; for example: night, nature, the earth, spring, hope, virtue, poetry, art.

(3) Classical mythology has also influenced our personifications; thus, in the classics, Love and Time are regarded as male, and Justice and Discord as female. So, too, the planets Jupiter and Saturn are male, and Venus and Vesta, female.

Besides its use to represent objects of the male sex, the pronoun *he* is used in a more general way to represent both male and female in cases where a distinction of sex is not important; thus,

If any one in the audience wishes to speak to me, let *him* remain;
Every one in town thought *he* had seen the stranger before

But where a distinction of sex is considered important, both *he* and *she* are used; thus,

Each lady and gentleman present should indicate how *he* or *she* intends to vote.

But this construction is clumsy, and is generally avoided wherever possible. In colloquial English the pronoun *they* is frequently used where scholarly usage requires the pronoun in the singular; thus,

Nobody knows what it is to lose a friend till *they* have lost him.

EXERCISE 53

Supply the proper form of pronoun in each of the following sentences, with reasons:

(a) *he, him.*

1. It was not — who spoke.
2. I knew it to be —.
3. There are few people as honest as —.
4. Whom can I trust, if not —?
5. Where were you and — going when I met you?
6. Let — who wishes, remain here with us.
7. It could not have been any one but—.
8. All the boys took part in the game, — among the rest.
9. — that honours me I will honour.
10. He thought me to be taller than —.

(b) *she, her.*

1. We met Fred and — yesterday.
2. It could not have been — that was here.
3. We saw James and — drive past.
4. It makes no difference to either you or —.
5. I supposed it was — who was with you.
6. I supposed it to be — who was with you.
7. Her sister cannot play as well as —.
8. Whom can I ask, if not —?
9. We could not have a better friend than —.
10. We expected to see all the girls — among the rest.

(c) *they, them.*

1. We do not practise as much as —.
2. Children such as — should not be encouraged.
3. It might have been — after all.
4. None must leave but — that have permission.

5. None so blind as — that will not see.
6. — that disobey will be punished.
7. — that disobey, the teacher will punish.
8. With people such as — one has to be careful.
9. I have no doubt it was — that did it.
10. It is absurd for people like — to interfere.

139. **Special Uses of the Pronoun It.**—Besides its ordinary use to represent something spoken of which is without sex, the pronoun *it* has a variety of special uses in which its usual force is weakened. The more important of these are as follows:

(1) **Representative Subject or Object.**—When the subject or the object of a verb is an infinitive, a gerund, or a noun clause, it is sometimes placed towards the end of the sentence for the sake of euphony, and the pronoun *it* stands as subject or object in its stead; thus,

It is hard *to part* when friends are dear;
It is no use *saying* anything to him;
It is a pity *that you cannot stay a day longer*;
 I will see *to it* *that he is there in time*.

So, too, in interrogative sentences,

When was *it* that he went?
 Is *it* true that he has gone?

When the pronoun *it* is used in this way it is called the **representative** subject or object, as the case may be, and the infinitive or noun clause for which it stands is known as the **real** subject or object.

(2) **Impersonal Subject or Object.**—Sometimes, as already pointed out, when the pronoun *it* is used as subject or as object, it does not signify any real thing, but only helps to express in the form of a statement the action or state represented by the verb; thus,

It is daylight; *It* came to blows between them;
 He lorded *it* over us;
 We are having a good time of *it*.

When the pronoun *it* is thus used, it is called the impersonal subject or object, as the case may be.

(3) **Indefinite Subject or Object.**—When we wish to make a statement about some person or thing not yet named, we use the word *it* to represent this person or thing; thus, instead of saying,

The person that I saw was John;
I believed *the person* that I saw to be John;

we may say,

It was John that I saw;
I believed *it* to be John that I saw.

When we use the word *it* in this way we generally place the adjective clause which modifies it towards the end of the sentence, for the sake of euphony; thus,

It is an ill wind *that blows nobody good*;
It is a long lane *that has no turning*.

When the pronoun *it* is thus used it is called the indefinite subject or object of the verb.

Distinction between Representative and Indefinite Uses.—Care must be taken to distinguish the representative use of the pronoun *it* from the indefinite use. Compare, for example, the two sentences,

It was strange *that he should speak to me*;
It was a stranger *that spoke to me*.

In the first sentence *it* is representative subject, and stands for the *noun* clause following. The sentence may be rewritten thus:

That he should speak to me was strange.

In the second sentence *it* is indefinite subject, and stands for "the person" not yet mentioned. It is, in this sentence, modified by an *adjective* clause, and the sentence may be written thus:

The person *that spoke to me* was a stranger.

EXERCISE 54

Show clearly in what way the pronoun "*it*" is used in each of the following sentences:

1. *It* will be stormy to-morrow.
2. A sudden squall struck the vessel and capsized *it*.
3. In prosperity *it* is very easy to find a friend.
4. *It* was morning on hill and stream and tree.
5. *It* needs brains to be a real fool.
6. We are having an easy time of *it*.
7. Be Yarrow's stream unseen, unknown;
It must, or we shall rue *it*.
8. To see a child so very fair,
It was a pure delight.
9. We find *it* hard to believe in his innocence.
10. *It* is not work that kills men; it is worry.
11. I took *it* to be you that I heard shouting.
12. *It* blew a hurricane last night.
13. "*It* was the English," Kaspar cried,
"Who put the French to rout."
14. Whence is that knocking? How is *it* with me, when
every noise appals me?
15. *It* is a good divine that follows his own instructions.
16. *It* is but a step from the sublime to the ridiculous.
17. We knew that he intended going to college, and approved of *it*.
18. *It* is better to fight for the good than to rail at the ill.
19. And *it* was the preparation of the Passover and about
the ninth hour.
20. *It* is not worth while going to see him.
21. Thy mistress leads thee a dog's life of *it*.
22. *It* was a difficult task to reach the harbour, but we determined to try *it*.
23. We are friends now; we have made *it* all up.
24. *It* is the little rift within the lute
That by and by will make the music mute.
25. The good of ancient times let others state;
I think *it* lucky I was born so late.

III. COMPOUND PERSONAL AND DEMONSTRATIVE
PRONOUNS

140. Compounds: Emphatic and Reflexive Uses.—The words *self* (sing.) and *selves* (plural) are added to *my*, *thy*, *our*, *your*, *him*, *her*, *it*, and *them*, to form compound personal and demonstrative pronouns. These compound pronouns are used in two different ways:

(1) To mark emphasis, usually along with a noun or another pronoun; thus,

I *myself* will go with you;
They told us *themselves*.

We find occasionally that the compound pronoun is used by itself as subject or object without being preceded by any other pronoun; thus,

Ourselves (we) will mingle with society and play the humble host;

John and *myself* (I) will be glad to see you.

In these constructions its emphatic value is, no doubt, to some extent weakened.

(2) As reflexive object of a verb or a preposition; thus,

I dress *myself*; He is anxious about *himself*.

In old style literature the simple personal or demonstrative was also sometimes used reflexively; thus,

I will build *me* a wide house;
Comfort ye, comfort *ye*, my people!
They have made *them* gods of gold.

EXERCISE 55

State the functions and relations of the italicized pronouns in the following sentences:

1. Heaven *itself* doth frown upon the land.
2. A wise man knows *himself* to be a fool.
3. If you would be well served you must serve *yourself*.

4. Some people can never see the mistakes that they *themselves* make.
5. Name not a rope in his house that hanged *himself*.
6. The pyramids *themselves*, dotting with age, have forgotten the names of their founders.
7. If I do not see him, you will have to deliver the message *yourself*.
8. Oh would some power the giftie gie us,
To see *ourselves* as others see us.
9. Columbus *himself* thought that America was a part of Asia.
10. Still, as of old, man by *himself* is priced;
For thirty pieces Judas sold *himself*, not Christ.

IV. REGULAR DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

141. Forms and Uses.—The regular demonstrative pronouns are:

Sing. this	Plu. these
that	those.

The word *so* is also sometimes demonstrative, but it has a weaker force.

When contrasted, *this* and *these* are used to refer to things nearer; *that* and *those* to things farther off; thus,

This is right; *that* is wrong;
Take *this* and give me *that*.

Consequently *this* is often equivalent to "the latter," and *that* to "the former." Sometimes also *this* refers to what follows, while *that* refers to what precedes; thus,

That is what he told me, and *this* was my reply.

Furthermore, the word *that* is used instead of *it* in certain constructions in which the pronoun is modified by an adjective phrase or clause; thus,

That (not *it*) which we have we will hold;

The picture of my father and *that* (not *it*) of my brother are on the table.

NOTE:—In such a sentence as, "Tell me your name, won't you? *That's* a fine fellow!" the pronoun *that* represents the person referred to in the preceding sentence. In this case, "*One who tells me his name is a fine fellow.*"

So, which is usually an adverb, is used as a demonstrative pronoun in such sentences as,

I will go home if you will do *so*;

If you think that I am wrong, say *so*.

In these sentences *so* is equivalent to *this* or *that*, and points back to some preceding notion for which it stands.

EXERCISE 56

Parse the italicized pronouns in the following sentences:

1. *They* that touch pitch will be defiled.
2. Before long *it* came to blows between *them*.
3. Lend me a shilling, *that's* a good fellow.
4. The houses of the rich are larger than *those* of the poor.
5. *It* is only a proper amount of work that is a blessing.
6. It must be true since you say *so*.
7. At last the master bowman, *he*, would cleave the mark.
8. None are so fond of secrets as *those* that do not mean to keep *them*.
9. *It* is my faith that every flower enjoys the air *it* breathes.
10. Some place their bliss in action, some in ease;
Those call it pleasure, and contentment, *these*.

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

142. Inflections.—The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *what*, and *which*.• Their function is to ask a question, and they are usually placed as near as possible to the beginning of the sentences; thus,

Who knocks so loud, who knocks so late? .

Which of them twain did the will of his father?

What is so rare as a day in June?

Who is not inflected for number or person; it has, however, three case forms, Nom., *who*; Poss., *whose*; Obj., *whom*.

Which and *what* are uninflected. *Which* is used with either singular or plural meaning, but *what* is used in the singular only.

143. Differences in Use.—Between *who* and *what* we make a distinction different from any that we make anywhere else in the language; *who* (with *whose* and *whom*) is used of persons, human beings; *what* is used of everything else, whether living creatures or inanimate things; *which* is used of both persons and things. *Which* differs from both *who* and *what* in being *selective*; that is, it implies a certain known number or body of individuals, from among whom the right one is to be selected; whereas *who* and *what* are indefinite. Thus, if we say, “*Who* did it?” or, “*What* did it?” we do not appear to know anything about the agent; but, “*Which* did it?” implies that we know certain persons or things, one or another of which must have been the agent.

Who and *what* are sometimes used also in an exclamatory sense; thus,

Who could have believed it!

What! are you going already?

What is sometimes used also as an adverb, as in the following sentences:

What (in what respect, or to what extent) better will that make it?

What (partly) with one thing and *what* with another I have been kept busy all the time.

EXERCISE 57

Parse the interrogative pronouns in the following:

1. *Who* was it that told you this?
2. *What* are the wild waves saying?
3. *Which* of the two houses did you sell?
4. To *whom* is your letter addressed?
5. Unto *what* shall I liken this generation?
6. *Which* of you by taking thought can add one cubit to his stature?
7. *What* were you thinking of when I met you?
8. *Who* hath believed our report, and to *whom* is the arm of the Lord revealed?

9. *Who* did you say it was that you expected to meet?
 10. *Which* of you, intending to build a tower, sitteth not down first and counteth the cost?

VI. CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS

144. **Double Functions.**—The conjunctive (or relative) pronouns, as the name implies, combine the functions of pronoun and conjunction; that is, they not only stand for nouns but also join subordinate clauses to the words to which they are related in the principal clauses. The words which are used as conjunctive pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*, and occasionally *but* and *as*.

145. **Definite and Indefinite Uses.**—The pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that*, when used conjunctively generally refer definitely to some noun or other pronoun in the same sentence. This noun or pronoun to which the conjunctive refers or relates, is known as its **antecedent**. The conjunctive pronoun is said to be *definite* when it has an antecedent expressed in the sentence. It is said to be *indefinite* when no antecedent is expressed. The conjunctive pronoun *that* is always definite; for example:

Uneasy lies the head *that* wears a crown;
 The evil *that* men do lives after them.

The conjunctive pronouns *who* and *which* are generally definite, as in the sentences,

The letter was delivered to the messenger, *who* waited without;
 We cannot overlook the mistakes *which* you have made.

But they are sometimes indefinite, as in the sentences,

Who steals my purse steals trash;
 You may take *which* you prefer.

What is always indefinite; it never has an antecedent; examples are:

What thou art we know not;
 Will no one tell me *what* she sings?

146. **Dependent Interrogatives.**—Most of the words which are usually classed in English as indefinite conjunctive pronouns are in reality dependent interrogatives, and their interrogative value becomes apparent as soon as we analyse the sentences containing them so as to show the relations between the clauses of which they are composed. For instance, instead of saying,

We know *which* we should choose;
I will ask *who* is going with us;

we may express the same ideas in the following form:

Which should we choose? We know;
Who is going with us? I will ask.

In such sentences, however, as the following:

Who chooseth me must give and hazard all he hath;
He cannot prove *what* he says;

the pronouns *Who* and *what* are indefinite conjunctives and have no interrogative value. The distinction between the indefinite conjunctive and the dependent interrogative is, however, not important in English grammar except as an aid to the study of a foreign language such as Latin.

EXERCISE 58

Parse each of the italicized pronouns in the following, pointing out whether it is used with or without an antecedent:

1. They always talk *who* never think.
2. I can't imagine *who* the writer can be.
3. Thrice is he armed *who* hath his quarrel just.
4. He needs strong arms *who* swims against the tide.
5. Not a pine in my grove is seen
 But with tendrils of woodbine is bound.
6. In this world it is not *what* we take, but what we give,
 that makes us rich.

7. I knew a very wise man *who* believed that if a man were permitted to make all the ballads he need not care *who* should make the laws of the nation.
8. I dare do all that may become a man; *who* dares do more is none.

147. Agreement with Antecedent.—The definite conjunctive is considered as being in the same person and number as its antecedent, and if used as subject of a verb, it governs the person and number of the verb accordingly; for example:

O Thou who camest from above;
They that are whole need not a physician.

EXERCISE 59

Tell which of the italicized verb forms is correct, and give the reason in each case:

1. He is the first of that family that *has* (*have*) been successful.
2. This street is one of those that *was* (*were*) paved last year.
3. This is the most interesting of the books that *is* (*are*) on the list.
4. It was one of the worst storms that *has* (*have*) ever been known in this country.
5. He is one of those unfortunate individuals who *is* (*are*) always in trouble.
6. You are the only one of the boys that *is* (*are*) not under suspicion.
7. One of his many good qualities that *comes* (*come*) to my mind is his modesty.
8. This is the best of the houses that *has* (*have*) been built this year.

148. Uses of Who and Which.—Who is used only of persons. It is not inflected for number and person, but has three case forms:

Nom., *who*; Poss., *whose*; Obj., *whom*.

Which is now used only of things or of persons collectively. In older English, however, it was sometimes used in referring to persons; thus,

Our Father *which* art in heaven.

Which is uninflected for person, number, and case. In order to express the relations which are usually expressed by the possessive case, the phrase *of which* is used. The use of *whose*, the possessive of *who*, in place of *of which* is, however, now generally considered correct; thus,

The village church, *whose* steeple (the steeple *of which*) you may see yonder, is almost hidden by trees.

Which sometimes has for its antecedent the idea contained in the preceding sentence or part of a sentence; it is then equivalent to *and this*, *but this*, or *for this*; thus,

The man was said to be innocent, *which* (=but this) he was not.

NOTE:—As we have already pointed out, *who* and *which* are sometimes used as indefinite conjunctives. When so used they always introduce noun clauses.

149. Uses of *That*.—*That* is a very general conjunctive. It may be used instead of either *who* or *which*, and may therefore refer to either persons or things.

That as a conjunctive is not inflected for person, number, or case, and does not follow a preposition. We may say,

The book *of which* I told you;
but not The book *of that* I told you.

Yet the conjunctive pronoun *that* may be object of a preposition provided that the preposition and pronoun stand apart in the sentence; thus,

The book *that* I told you *of*.

NOTE:—In sentences such as,

Morning is the time *that* I usually go;

This is the reason *that* I spoke;

the preposition governing the conjunctive pronoun *that* is unexpressed. If we were to substitute the pronoun *which* for *that*, the sentences would read as follows:

Morning is the time *at which* I usually go;

This is the reason *for which* I spoke.

150. Uses of What.—*What* differs from *who*, *which*, and *that*, in that it has not usually an antecedent expressed in the sentence, and, therefore, lacks their definiteness of reference. In its ordinary use, it implies both antecedent and conjunctive; that is, it is nearly equivalent to *that which*, (*that*, demonstrative, and *which*, conjunctive), and consequently it always introduces a noun-clause. It is not used of persons. Examples of its use are:

What is done cannot be undone;

I saw *what* he was doing.

151. Uses of But and As.—*But* is occasionally used after a negative expression as a kind of negative conjunctive, equivalent to *that not*. For example:

There is not a man *but* knows it;

means,

There is not a man *that* does *not* know it;

and is a contraction for,

There is not a man *but* he knows it.

As, which in modern English is generally an adverb, is sometimes used after *the same*, and especially after *such*, with the value of a definite conjunctive; thus,

This is the same *as* he has; I love *such as* love me.

Like the conjunctive pronoun *which* (148), *as* sometimes has for its antecedent the idea contained in the preceding sentence or part of a sentence; thus,

That is not the truth, *as* you well know.

152. Compound Conjunctives.—The compound conjunctives are formed by adding *ever* or *soever* to the simple conjunctives, *who*, *which* and *what*; thus, *whoever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, *whosoever*, etc. These compound conjunctives never have antecedents, and they are used instead of the simple indefinite conjunctives, *who*, *which*, and *what*, whenever we wish to make the

reference of the pronoun still more indefinite; for example:

Whoever fights, *whoever* falls, justice conquers evermore;
Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with all thy might.

EXERCISE 60

Parse the italicized conjunctive pronouns in the following sentences:

1. I believed *what* you told me.
2. I never saw such fish *as* he caught.
3. *Whosoever* exalteth himself shall be abased.
4. O Thou *that* dwellest in the heavens! behold with compassion thy children on the earth.
5. You do not tell the same story *as* your brother.
6. I could a tale unfold *whose* slightest word would harrow up thy soul.
7. What hand *but* would a garland cull
 For thee *who* art so beautiful!
8. Take care *what* you say before a wall, as you cannot tell *who* may be behind it.
9. The rumour is without foundation, *as* will appear later.
10. It had been raining for over a week, *which* made our journey very disagreeable.

153. Relation of the Conjunctive.—It is well to remember that the case of the conjunctive pronoun is always governed by some word *in its own clause*. Consider, for example, the relation of the conjunctive in each of the following sentences:

- (a) He cannot marry (whom he wishes);

Whom is object of *wishes* (to marry).

- (b) I am not afraid of (what he will do);

What is object of *will do*.

- (c) We know the lady (of whom you were speaking);

Whom is object of the preposition *of*.

EXERCISE 61

State the case and relation of each of the italicized pronouns in the following:

1. We followed the path by *which* you came.
2. Have you decided *which* you will take?
3. We have been thinking about *what* you told us.
4. This is the gentleman of *whom* I have been speaking.
5. Can you tell us *what* we are expected to do?
6. Have you found out *who* he is?
7. We will give a prize to *whichever* you consider best.
8. Do not pay any attention to *what* they tell you.
9. You may invite *whomsoever* you wish.
10. That is the point towards *which* we have been directing our course.

EXERCISE 62

Supply the proper form, "*who*" or "*whom*," in each of the following sentences, with reasons:

1. I don't know — to ask.
2. — were you talking to this morning?
3. — do you think will be there?
4. You are the man — I must see.
5. I can't imagine — he can be.
6. I saw the crippled man — you thought to be dead.
7. I saw the crippled man — you thought was dead.
8. You can't think — I saw this morning.
9. — do you expect to see this evening?
10. Yonder is a man — I believe is a criminal.
11. Yonder is a man — I believe to be a criminal.
12. — do you think called on me yesterday?
13. — do you think that he is?
14. — do you take him to be?
15. He cannot ask — he would like.
16. He was a man — I knew I could trust.
17. He was a man — I knew could be trusted.
18. This was the messenger — I was given to understand I should find waiting for me.

VII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

154. Classification.—It is usual to put into a class together, under the name of **indefinite pronouns**, certain words which, either by their derivation or owing to the way in which they are used, have a likeness to pronouns. Most of these are used as adjectives also; and they, in fact, occupy a kind of intermediate position between the real pronouns, on the one hand, and nouns and adjectives, on the other. When used pronominally, they do not indicate a particular individual; thus, *any* means, "one of a number," but the exact number is not indicated; the reference of the pronoun is left *indefinite* or undetermined. To this class belong:

(1) **The distributives:** *each, either, and neither*. These pronouns refer to objects, not as a collection, but as taken separately. They are, therefore, considered as being in the singular number; thus,

Each of the men expects that he can succeed.

Either and *neither* are used with reference to *two* only.

(2) **The indefinites of number and quantity:** *some, any, many, few, all, both, one, none, aught, and naught*; and with this list we may include such words as *same, enough, much, more, most, several, sundry, certain*, when used to represent persons or things.

The indefinites *any* and *none* are generally considered as singular when they are used of quantity, and as plural when they are used of number; thus,

He will draw some water if there *is any* in the well, I am looking for flowers. *Are there any* in the woods? *None* of the grain *is* cut. *None* of our friends *are* there.

(3) **The comparative indefinites:** *such, and other*.

(4) **The compound indefinites:** *some, any, every, and no, with one, thing, and body*; thus, *some one, something, somebody*.

(5) *Each other*, and *one another*, which have a reciprocal or "mutual" sense, are called **reciprocal pronoun phrases**.

Each other is generally used with reference to *two*, and *one another* is used with reference to more than two; but the distinction is not an important one.

(6) **Other words sometimes used as indefinites:** A number of other words, such as *you*, *people*, *a man*, *they*, *a body*, *a fellow*, *it*, *who*, which generally have other functions in the sentence, are occasionally used as indefinite pronouns also; for example:

They say that the war is about over;

In these days of railway accidents *a fellow* (or *a body*) has to be careful;

I tell you *what*; he knows who's *who*;

As *who* should say, "I am Sir Oracle"; (Merchant of Venice).

EXERCISE 63

Parse the italicized pronouns in the following sentences:

1. *Nothing* is more powerful than silence.
2. *Some* he imprisoned; *others* he put to death.
3. Then *each* at once his falchion drew;
Each on the ground his scabbard threw.
4. *A man* has no more right to say an uncivil thing than to act *one*.
5. Love *all*, trust *few*, do wrong to *none*.
6. *They* have in England, a coin that bears the figure of an angel.
7. To be ready is *everything*; then you have *nothing* to do when the emergency comes.
8. *Naught* cared this body for wind and weather,
When youth and I lived in it together.
9. Two persons will not be friends long if they cannot forgive *each other* little failings.
10. Every man who can be a first-rate *something*, as every man can be who is a man at all, has no right to be a fifth-rate something, for a fifth-rate something is no better than a first-rate *nothing*.

11. *A little* in one's own pocket is better than *much* in *another's* purse.
12. There never was *a person* that did *anything*, who did not really receive *more* than he gave.

EXERCISE 64

Distinguish between the meanings of the following sentences:

1. I do not like Tom as well as he.
I do not like Tom as well as him.
2. This is the same book as I had last year.
This is the same book that I had last year.
3. We met the boatman, who took us across the river.
We met the boatman who took us across the river.
4. There is no one that is pleased with this picture.
There is no one but is pleased with this picture.
5. Does none of the company know the story of Pocahontas?
Do none of the company know the story of Pocahontas?

EXERCISE 65

Make any corrections that you consider necessary in the following sentences, with reasons:

1. Whom do men say that I am?
2. Neither of us were good marksmen.
3. He is one of those impulsive men that says just what he thinks.
4. Almost any one can learn to play the piano if they practise.
5. The position is open to whomsoever wishes to apply.
6. You are more to be pitied than them.
7. Neither of the servants thought themselves well paid.
8. Do you remember my cousin, whom we thought had settled in Australia.
9. Each of the three great epic poets have distinguished themselves.
10. It is one of the largest vessels that has been built this year.

GENERAL EXERCISE

Parse the italicized pronouns in the following sentences:

1. I, *myself*, sometimes despise *myself*.
2. He *that* is surety for a stranger shall smart for *it*.
3. *It* is a good thing to give thanks unto the Lord.
4. Forgetting *oneself* or knowing oneself—around *these everything* turns.
5. A *man's* character is like a fence,—*you* cannot strengthen it by whitewash.
6. A plague on *it* when thieves cannot be true to *one another*. A lie always needs truth for a handle to *it*. The worst lies are *those* whose blade is false but *whose* handle is true:
7. This life *which* seems so fair
Is like a bubble blown up in the air
By sporting children's breath,
Who chase it everywhere
And strive *who* can most motion *it* bequeath.
8. The human race is divided into two great classes, *those* who go ahead and do *something*, and those who sit still and inquire why it wasn't done some other way.
9. She bade me if I had a friend that loved her,
I should but teach *him* how to tell my story,
And *that* would woo her.
10. The talent of success is *nothing* more than doing *what* you can do well, and doing well *whatever* you do.

CHAPTER VIII

THE ADJECTIVE

155. **Classification.**—Adjectives are generally divided into four classes, as follows:

- I. Adjectives of Quality.
- II. Pronominal Adjectives.
- III. Numeral Adjectives.
- IV. Articles.

We shall accordingly describe each of these classes separately in turn.

I. ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY

156. **Use of the Term.**—Under the term **Adjectives of Quality** we include not only adjectives that express quality, as *blue, bright, brave, excellent*, but also proper adjectives, as *Japanese, English, Canadian*, and such adjectives of quantity as are not included in the other classes; for instance, *little, sufficient*.

157. **Degrees of Comparison.**—Many adjectives have, besides their simple forms, two derived forms ending in *er*, and *est*, respectively; thus,

long	longer	longest
quick	quicker	quickest.

By means of these derived forms we are able to express different degrees of quality in objects which are compared, and we speak of these three forms therefore as representing different *degrees of comparison*. The mode of expressing comparison by means of derivatives in *er* and *est* is known as **suffix comparison**.

NOTE:—According to some authorities, such forms as *smaller* and *smallest* are due to inflection rather than derivation, but in Old English these forms were considered as constituting new stems, and the comparative and the superlative were declined with full gender, case, and number inflections.

158. The Positive.—When we wish to indicate that some person or thing possesses a certain quality in itself and without reference to other objects, the simplest form of the adjective is used; thus,

London is a *large* city.

The adjective *large* in this sentence is said to be of the positive degree because it represents the city as possessing the quality of largeness in itself and without reference to other cities.

159. The Comparative.—The derived form in *er* is used when we wish to indicate that some person or thing possesses a certain quality in a greater degree than some other person or thing; thus,

London is a *larger* city than New York.

The adjective *larger* in this sentence is said to be in the comparative degree because it represents London as possessing the quality of largeness not in itself simply, but *as compared with* New York.

160. The Superlative.—The derived form in *est* is used when we wish to indicate that out of a number of persons or things (usually more than two), one possesses a certain quality in a greater degree than any of the rest; for instance,

London, New York, and Paris are large cities, but London is the *largest* of the three.

The adjective *largest* in this sentence is said to be in the superlative degree, because it represents London as possessing the quality of largeness in a superlative or surpassing degree as compared with the other cities.

NOTE:—The use of the comparative or of the superlative degree does not of necessity imply that the person or thing spoken of in itself possesses the quality expressed by the adjective. For instance, in the sentence, "Paris is smaller than London"; Paris is not spoken of as *small* in itself; it is said to be small only as compared with London.

161. Differences in Use.—The comparative degree strictly implies a comparison between two objects of thought, the superlative among more than two. Accordingly such an expression as, “She is the *tallest* of the two”; is not sanctioned by good usage. And furthermore when we use the comparative the object compared must not be included with the rest of its class. For instance, we cannot say, “London is larger than any city in the world”; since that would imply that it is larger than itself. We must accordingly say, “London is larger than any *other* city in the world.” On the other hand, when we use the superlative the object compared must be included in the class of objects with which the comparison is made. For instance, we must say, “London is the largest of all the cities in the world”; and not “London is the largest of all the other cities in the world.”

162. Absolute Superlative.—In the expressions “my dearest father,” and “a man of the highest renown,” no comparison is implied, although the forms are those of superlatives. The superlatives here, and in similar adjective phrases containing *most*, *very*, *extremely*, *supremely*, and so on, are called *absolute*, the more ordinary uses being designated as *relative*.

163. Phrasal Comparison.—In many adjectives the comparative and superlative degrees of quality are expressed by means of adverbs instead of by the addition of *er* and *est*; for instance,

beautiful	<i>more</i> beautiful	<i>most</i> beautiful;
interesting	<i>more</i> interesting	<i>most</i> interesting.

In these examples, *more beautiful* and *more interesting* form comparative adjective phrases, and *most beautiful* and *most interesting* form superlative ad-

jective phrases. This mode of comparison is therefore called **phrasal**.

NOTE:—Phrasal comparatives and superlatives may be formed by means of different modifying words. Thus, with *more* and *most* we have comparatives and superlatives of superiority; with *less* and *least* we have comparatives and superlatives of inferiority, and with *as* and *not so* we have comparatives of equality and inequality.

164. When Used.—Whether suffix or phrasal comparison shall be used, depends chiefly upon the form of the simple adjective. Most adjectives of one syllable admit of suffix comparison; thus,

short	shorter	shortest	fit	fitter	fittest
dry	drier	driest	coy	coyer	coyest;

but comparatively few of two syllables, (generally those in very frequent use). Examples are:

simple	simpler	simplest
sincere	sincerer	sincerest
guilty	guiltier	guiltiest
clever	cleverer	cleverest
common	commoner	commonest
ragged	raggeder	raggedest.

Generally speaking, words of purely English origin, monosyllables, and easily pronounced dissyllables, add *-er* and *-est*; but there is no inflexible rule, and much depends upon pleasantness of sound and the desire for variety of expression or rhetorical effect.

NOTE:—Where the same object is said to have more of one quality than another, the phrasal form is now alone used; thus,

The news is more true than pleasant; (not "truer than pleasant").

165. Irregular Comparison. (1) A few adjectives are irregularly compared. They may be classified as follows:

good	better	best
bad, or ill	worse (rarely, <i>worser</i>)	worst
little	less (sometimes, <i>lesser</i>)	least
much, many	more	most

old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
late	later, latter	latest, last
nigh	nigher	nighest, next.

Elder and *eldest* are used only of persons, and generally refer to members of the same family.

Latter and *last* are now used to express position in a series; *later* and *latest*, to express time.

The original comparison of *nigh*, was *nigh*, *near*, *next*. Then *near* came to be used as a positive and both *near* and *nigh* formed new comparatives and superlatives, so that we have, *nigh*, *nigher*, *nighest*, *next*, and *near*, *nearer*, *nearest*.

Nearest now denotes space or distance; *next*, order in position.

(2) The comparative is usually followed by the conjunction *than*, which is therefore called its sign. There are, however, in English a few words which are comparatives in meaning, though not in construction; examples are:

senior, superior, elder, former, inner.

(3) A certain number of comparatives and superlatives have an adverb for their positive and the superlatives have usually the ending *most*, which, moreover, is sometimes added to what is apparently the comparative degree. Examples are:

from <i>in</i>	inner	inmost, or innermost,
from <i>out</i>	outer	outmost, or outermost,
from <i>up</i>	upper	upmost (rare), or uppermost.

Utter and *utmost*, or *uttermost*, are originally the same as *outer* and *outermost*.

Fore has for its comparative *former*, and for its superlative *foremost*, or *first*. And from it are derived, also, the comparative *further*, and the superlative *furthest*.

Far takes the comparative *farther* and superlative *farthest*.

By many, the use of *further* and *furthest* is restricted to expressions that involve the notion of something additional, *farther* and *farthest* being used for others; thus,

New York is *farther* from Toronto than from Boston;
He can go no *further* to-day; a *further* reason exists.

(4) A kind of superlative is also sometimes formed with *-most* from words which do not distinguish any positive and comparative. Examples are:

midmost, undermost, hithermost, nethermost, hindermost, southmost.

NOTE:—The suffix *most* in these forms is not the adverb *most*, but represents in reality two older superlative endings, *ma* and *est*.

166. Some Adjectives not Compared.—Some adjectives, owing to the nature of the ideas they express, do not admit of comparison, unless used in a limited sense; for example:

right, perpendicular, brass, yearly, Canadian, chief;

but we say, for instance:

His accent is *more English* than yours;

This pebble is *rounder* (*i.e.*, more nearly round), than that.

EXERCISE 66

Write the comparatives and superlatives of the following adjectives:

sweet	pretty	nigh	big
bitter	gay	difficult	free
late	wonderful	easy	wealthy
active	evil	lonely	little
stupid	red	sly	complete.

II. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

167. How Classified.—Pronominal adjectives are partly adjectival and partly pronominal in function, and are divided into classes corresponding in general to those of the pronouns from which they are derived.

NOTE:—Under pronominal adjectives some grammarians include only the possessives, on the ground that in such expressions, for example, as, *this house*, *which book*, *some paper*, the words *this*, *which*, and *some*, have little, if any, pronominal value. As, however, these adjectives are pronominal in origin, we have retained the older classification.

168. **Possessive Adjectives.**—Adjectives corresponding to the personal pronouns and to the demonstrative pronouns of the third person are used to express possession and are known as **possessive adjectives**. The personal possessives are:

my, mine	our, ours
thy, thine	your, yours.

The demonstrative possessives are:

his	its
her, hers	their, theirs.

169. **Uses of Double Forms.**—The existence of two forms of the same word led gradually to a well-established difference of use in Modern English; thus, the forms, *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs*, are used absolutely, that is, when no modified noun follows these forms. *My*, *thy*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *your*, and *their* are used when a noun follows; and *his* has both uses; thus,

This is *my* book, and that is *your* pen;
The book is *hers*, and not *his* or *theirs*.

But in older English, and in old-style English, *mine* and *thine* are frequently found with a noun, instead of *my* and *thy*, especially before a vowel; thus,

brother *mine*; *mine* own eyes; *thine* every wish;
Give every man *thine* ear, but few *thy* voice.

Note 1. In the sentences,

The victory is *ours*;
Thine is the kingdom, the power and the glory;

the words *ours* and *Thine* are predicate adjectives. But in the sentences,

Our house is larger than *yours*;
I borrowed his book, *mine* having been lost;

the words *yours* and *mine* are possessive pronouns (134).

2. As an adjective the word *own* is always used with one of the pronominal possessive adjectives for the purpose of emphasizing the idea of possession; thus,

He cannot remember his *own* name.

It is, however, not pronominal in value, and may be described as an **emphatic possessive adjective**. In an expression such as,

Britons, hold your *own*;

it is, of course, used as a noun.

170. Demonstrative Adjectives.—The demonstrative pronominal adjectives are:

this, these; that, those; yon, yonder; so, such.

The first two pairs are of the same form as the demonstrative pronouns, and are used with the same differences of meaning.

Yon (or *yond*) and *yonder* point to a remoter object, generally to one in sight. Neither form is in general use.

So may be valued as a demonstrative adjective in such sentences as,

He was tired and *so* was I; It is *so*;

Thou found'st me poor and kept'st me *so*.

But, although *so* refers to some notion expressed before, it is not so strongly demonstrative as those previously given.

Such, also, may be valued as a demonstrative adjective when it refers to something which has just been mentioned, or is about to be mentioned; thus,

He is not truthful; I dislike *such* a man;

Such men as Milton live for all time.

EXERCISE 67

Parse the italicized adjectives in the following:

1. Virtue is its *own* reward.
2. Vengeance is *mine*; I will repay, saith the Lord.
3. Is *yon* red glare the western star?
4. I have heard that he is ill, but I am sure it is not *so*.
5. And now, all in my *own* countree I stood on the firm land.
6. I remain. dear sir, *yours* truly.

7. In *yonder* ivy-mantled tower
The moping owl does to the moon complain.
8. Beauty is its *own* excuse for being.
9. There's nothing either good or bad but thinking makes it *so*.
10. Wealth is not *his* that has it, but his that enjoys it.
11. Happiness grows at our *own* firesides, and is not to be plucked in strangers' gardens.
12. What's mine is *yours*, and what's *yours* is mine.

171. Interrogative Adjectives.—The interrogative pronominal adjectives are *which* and *what*. Both of them apply to either persons or things, and they differ only in that *which* is *selective*. Thus we say, in general, "*What* book have you?" But, if two or more are had distinctly in mind, and the question is as to the particular one among them, we must say, "*Which* book have you?" *What* may also be used as an exclamatory adjective; thus,

What a piece of work is man!

172. Conjunctive Adjectives.—*Which* and *what* are also used as conjunctive adjectives, and when so used they have the same meanings as the corresponding conjunctive pronouns.

The compound forms *whichever* and *whatever* may be used also with the value of adjectives as well as of pronouns.

173. Indefinite Adjectives.—Most of the so-called indefinite pronouns, with one or two kindred words, are used also as indefinite pronominal adjectives. There are three sub-classes:

(1) **Distributives:** *each* and *every*, *either* and *neither*. Of these, *every* is always used as an adjective.

(2) **Comparatives:** *such* and *other*; *such* implying resemblance, and *other*, difference.

NOTE:—*Other* is generally used when speaking of one of two things, but in the sentence, "He called the *other* day"; it applies to one of an indefinite number.

In the sentence, "He remarked that he had met me on such and such a day"; the repetition of *such* gives greater indefiniteness to the expression. *Such* and *such* must, of course, be treated as an indefinite adjective phrase.

(3) **Quantitatives:** *some, any, many, few, all, both, one, and no.* *One* is indefinite in such sentences as,

I saw him *one* day (= "a day not mentioned") last week;

One Jones came to see me.

NOTE:—In the sentence, "He will remain *some* ten days yet"; *some* is used in the sense of *about*, and is adverbial in function.

EXERCISE 68

In the following sentences fill in the blanks with the proper adjective form, "*his*" or "*their*":

1. Any one in — senses would avoid a mad dog.
2. Everyone should do — duty.
3. Neither of the boys had — work finished.
4. Nobody was satisfied with — share.
5. Each of the workmen received — wages.
6. All of the men present expressed — disapproval.
7. There is no one but has some sorrow during — life.
8. Whoever loves — country should be willing to die for it.
9. Either of your neighbours will surely offer — assistance.
10. One cannot be too careful in choosing — companions.

EXERCISE 69

Classify the pronominal adjectives in the following sentences:

1. Thine hand shall be lifted up upon thine adversaries and all *thine* enemies shall be cut off.
2. *Few* men have shown *such* obstinacy.
3. We speak the *same* language as you.
4. No really great man ever thought himself *so*.
5. *What* a spendthrift is he of his tongue!
6. *Every* great life is an incentive to *all* other lives.
7. I know by experience *what* sort of man he is.

8. Soul, thou hast *much* goods laid up for *many* years.
9. *What* shadows we are and what shadows we pursue!
10. Along thy banks, swift Forth, they ride,
And in the race they mock *thy* tide.
11. Every prison is an exclamation point, and *every* asylum is a question mark, in the sentences of civilization.
12. The writer of a book, is not he a preacher preaching, not to *this* parish or that, on this day or that, but to *all* men in all times and places?

III. NUMERALS

174. Definite Use.—In addition to the indefinite pronouns and adjectives expressing number and quantity, there is a special class of words called **numerals**, which are used to express number in a more definite way.

175. Cardinals.—The most important of the numerals are those which may be used in answering the question, "How many?" They are called the **cardinal numerals**, or the **cardinals**. (*Cardinal*, [Latin, *cardo*, "a hinge"], means "principal," "most important.")

The cardinals are *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, and so on. They are used either as adjectives or as nouns; thus,

three men, *three* of the men.

Used as nouns, they may all form plurals; thus,

They walked by *twos* and *threes*.

The higher numbers, *hundred*, *thousand*, *million*, and so on, usually keep the singular form in simple enumeration, even after *two*, *three*, etc.; and always, if they form part of a compound number made up of different denominations; thus, *four hundred*; *ten thousand six hundred*.

From the cardinals come the following classes of derivative words:

176. Ordinals.—The numerals by which we show the order or place of anything in a series, reckoning from the first, are called ordinals (Lat. *ordinalis*, “in order”). Most of the ordinals are formed from the cardinals by the suffix *th*, which, in the case of compound numbers, is added to the last only; thus, *fourth*, *twenty-fifth*, *one hundred and seventh*.

But the ordinals of *one*, *two*, and *three*, are *first*, *second*, *third*.

The ordinals are frequently used as adjectives, but they may also be used as nouns or as adverbs; thus,

You are the *first* person I have met to-day; (*adjective*).

The second problem is harder than the *first*; (*noun*).

He *first* closed the door; (*adverb*).

177. Fractionals.—The words that are used as ordinals except *first* and *second*, are also used as nouns to denote one of a corresponding number of equal parts into which anything is supposed to be divided; thus,

a *third* of an apple; *three-fifths* of the amount.

When used in this sense they are called **fractionals**.

The fractional corresponding to *two* is *half*, instead of *second*; and instead of *fourth* we oftener say *quarter*.

The fractionals are used as adjectives in constructions such as the following:

He has a *two-thirds* interest in the business;

The by-law was carried by a *three-fifths* vote.

But, as noted above, they are generally used as nouns.

178. Multiplicatives.—Sometimes in order to show how many times anything is taken, the cardinal numeral is formed into a compound with the English word *fold*, which remains singular; thus,

twofold, tenfold, hundredfold.

These words are called **multiplicatives**. Of the same value are: *simple*, *double*, *triple*, *quadruple*, and a few others with the suffix *ple*, or *ble*.

Most of the multiplicatives may be used either as nouns, as adjectives, or as adverbs; for example:

They received a *twofold* reward; (*adjective*).

If I have taken aught from any man by false accusation I restore him *fold*; (*noun*).

This property has increased in value *tenfold*; (*adverb*).

The numeral adverbs *once*, *twice*, *thrice*, are used also with a multiplicative sense. We use also multiplicative adverbial phrases, as, *three times*, *four times*, and so on.

EXERCISE 70

Parse each of the italicized numerals in the following sentences:

1. *One* life—a little gleam of time between *two* eternities!
2. *Second* thoughts are best.
3. I know a trick worth *two* of that.
4. I have *half* a mind to try the examination.
5. An army such as this could not enslave five *millions* of people.
6. *Three* may keep a secret if *two* of them are dead.
7. For *one* man who can stand prosperity there are a *hundred* that will stand adversity.
8. *Forty and six* years was this temple in building.
9. A *threefold* cord is not quickly broken.
10. That whistle garrisoned the glen
At once with full *five hundred* men,
As if the yawning hill to heaven
A subterranean host had given.

EXERCISE 71

Parse the italicized expressions in the following:

The ship, upon clearing the harbour, ran into a half-pitching, *half-rolling* sea, that became particularly *noticeable* about the *time* the twenty-five passengers at the captain's table sat down

to dinner. "I hope that all *twenty-five* of you will have a *pleasant* trip," the captain told them as the soup appeared, "and that *this* little assemblage of twenty-four will reach port much benefited by the voyage. I look upon these *twenty-two* smiling faces much as a father does upon *his* family, for I am *responsible* for the safety of this group of seventeen. I hope that *all* the *thirteen* of you will join me later in drinking to a merry trip. I believe that we seven fellow-passengers are *most congenial* and I applaud the judgment which chose from the *passenger* list these three persons for my table. You and I, my *dear* sir, are — Here, steward! Bring on the fish and clear away *these* dishes."

IV. ARTICLES

179. The Indefinite Article.—The words *an* or *a*, and *the*, are known as articles. (*Article* means "a little joint," these words having been at one time fancifully regarded as the "joints" of the sentence.)

An, or *a*, is derived from the numeral *one* and still retains something of its numeral value. It is used to indicate that we are speaking of some one or of any one of the objects represented by the noun, and accordingly it is called the *indefinite article*.

NOTE:—In phrases like, "fifty cents *a* yard"; "two dollars *a* pound"; the *an* or *a* is a weakened form of the word *one* in the sense of *each*. On the other hand, in expressions such as, "He is gone *a*-hunting"; "They set it *a*going"; "Let us go *a*board"; "He is gone *a*shore"; the *a* is not the article, but a weakened form of the preposition *on*.

Generally *an* is used before a vowel-sound; *a* before a consonant-sound. But, if a word beginning with a pronounced *h* is stressed on the second syllable, most persons use *an*, as the *h* in such words is not fully sounded; thus,

an hotel; *an* historical novel; *an* hypothesis.

Before the sound of *y* or *w*, whether written or not, only *a* is proper in present English; thus,

such *a* one; *a* union; *a* European;

just as we should say, *a* wonder, *a* youth.

180. **The Definite Article.**—*The* is derived from the demonstrative *that*, and in some of its uses still retains something of its former demonstrative value.

It usually marks off the noun to which it is joined, as the name of something which both speaker and hearer can in their minds separate from others of the same class; thus,

The boy we want is not here; Thou art *the* man;
The duke is dead;

and hence it is called the **definite** article.

The has a stronger demonstrative force in some expressions than in others. In such expressions as "*the* day before yesterday," "*the* Ottawa river," "*the* boy whom I met," it points out some particular person or thing. But in such expressions as,

The maple is Canada's emblem;
The poor ye have always with you;

the demonstrative force is weakened.

EXERCISE 72

(a) *Explain the functions of "a," "an," and "the" as italicized in the following sentences:*

1. *The* Scriptures tell *the* story of the flood.
2. He that goes aborrowing goes *asorrowing*.
3. Hay is worth ten dollars *a* ton.
4. Morning's laugh sets all the crags *alight*.
5. I can find words, but Mr. Pitt always finds *the* word.
6. The visitors were admitted two at *a* time.
7. This train makes fifty miles *an* hour.
8. I have done *the* deed; did you not hear *a* noise?
9. Sometimes *adropping* from the sky,
I heard *the* skylark sing.
10. *The* Emperor Hadrian possessed the various talents of
the soldier, the statesman, and *the* scholar.

(b) *Distinguish the meanings of the italicized expressions in the following:*

Man was made for society and ought to extend his good will to all men, but *a man* will naturally entertain a more particular kindness for *the man* with whom he has the most frequent intercourse, and enter into a still closer union with *the men* whose temper and disposition suit best with his own.

181. Repetition of the Article.—When the article is followed by several adjectives or nouns joined by *and*, it must be repeated if the reference is to two or more objects; thus, when we say,

the secretary and treasurer

we have reference to one person, who holds both offices, but when we say,

the secretary and the treasurer

we imply that there are two persons. So also when we say,

a red and white flag

we have reference to only one flag, but when we say,

a red and a white flag

we imply that there are two flags, one red and the other white.

In some cases, however, even when the reference is to a single object the article is repeated before each adjective in a series for the sake of giving them greater prominence; thus,

He was a skilful and a resolute general.

EXERCISE 73

State, with reasons, whether the article should be repeated before each of the nouns forming compound members of the following sentences:

1. Give me a cup and saucer.
2. The spider and fly are natural enemies.

3. We require to elect two officers, a president and secretary.
4. The author and publisher of this book deserves great praise.
5. The books, pictures, and furniture are to be sold.
6. At the entrance to the hallway there was a large picture and marble statue.
7. Gibbon wrote "The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire."
8. Leading to every room there was an open and secret passage.
9. We could not tell whether the Kaffir or Hottentot made the better servant.
10. There is a great difference between a liberal and prodigal man.

EXERCISE 74

Correct the following sentences, giving your reason in each case:

1. I do not care for those kind of people.
2. Every passenger had their tickets bought before the boat started.
3. Brazil is larger than all the countries of South America.
4. She wore a beautiful and a costly gown at the ball.
5. Of the two men he is by far the cleverest.
6. One should never allow their prejudices to get the better of their judgment.
7. Jupiter is the largest of all the other planets.
8. The president and the chairman of the commission was a wealthy merchant.
9. These kind of flowers are found in Southern Mexico.
10. Chaucer was greater than all the poets of his age.
11. I saw the pickpocket and policeman on opposite sides of the street.
12. It was the least dignified of all the party squabbles by which it had been preceded.

EXERCISE 75

State the kind and relation of each of the italicized adjectives in the following:

1. The pot called the kettle *black*.
2. The *very* hairs of *your* head are numbered.
3. *No morning* sun lasts a *whole* day.
4. Experience keeps a *dear* school, but fools will learn in *no* other.
5. A *cruel* story runs on wheels, and *every* hand oils the wheels as they run.
6. It does not need that a poem should be *long*. *Every* word was once a poem.
7. Next to ingratitude, the *most painful* thing to bear is gratitude.
8. Poverty, like *many other* miseries of life, is often little *more* than an *imaginary* calamity.
9. Land of *my* sires! *What* mortal hand
Can e'er untie the filial band
That knits me to thy *rugged* strand?
10. There are *some silent* people who are *more interesting* than the *best* talkers.
11. *Every* man feels instinctively that *all the beautiful* sentiments in the world weigh less than a *single* lovely action.
12. *All* men are bores except when we want them. There never was but *one* man that I would trust with *my* latch key.

V. ATTRIBUTIVE, APPOSITIVE, AND PREDICATE
ADJECTIVES

182. Classification According to Relation.—But besides being classified according to meaning, adjectives may be divided into three classes according to the closeness of their relation to the noun or pronoun which they modify.

183. Attributive Adjectives.—In the sentence,

There, where a few *torn* shrubs the place disclose,
The village preacher's *modest* mansion rose;

the adjectives *torn* and *modest* immediately precede the nouns which they modify, and nouns and adjectives are so closely associated that each is incomplete without the other. An adjective thus used is called an **attributive** adjective, or is said to be used **attributively**. (*Attributive* means "assigned to" or "ascribed to," and the use of the term implies that the adjective and noun are very closely related.)

184. Appositive Adjectives.—In the sentence,

Behind them followed the watch-dog, *patient*, *full* of importance, and *grand* in the pride of his instinct;

the adjectives *patient*, *full*, *grand*, are joined to their respective nouns in a looser and more indirect way, much in the same manner as a noun in apposition (112). Adjectives which are thus used are called **appositive** adjectives, or are said to be used **appositively**.

NOTE:—The attributive adjective usually precedes the noun which it modifies, but sometimes, for the sake of euphony, or in order to heighten the poetic effect, it follows it; for instance:

Lo! with a summons *sonorous*, sounded the bell from its tower.

So also the appositive adjective generally follows the noun which it modifies, but sometimes, for the sake of emphasis, precedes it; thus,

Impatient of the silent horn,
Now on the gale her voice was borne.

185. Predicate Adjectives.—In the sentence,

The sky is *bright*;

the adjective *bright* belongs to the predicate, and the relation between *sky* and *bright* is predicated by the verb *is*. Adjectives which are used in this way are known as **predicate** adjectives (196).

In the sentence,

The moon shines *clear*;

the word *clear* modifies both *moon* and *shines*, and is known as an **adverbial predicate adjective** (196). And in the sentence,

We consider the story *true*;

the adjective *true* completes the verb *consider*, and modifies the object *story*, and is therefore known as an **objective predicate adjective** (116).

NOTE: In the sentence,

The snow makes the ground *white*;

the adjective *white* is objective predicate; but furthermore, since the whiteness is represented as the result of the action expressed by the verb, the adjective is said to be **factitive** (117).

EXERCISE 76

Select the predicate adjectives in the following and give the kind and relation of each:

1. The stately homes of England,
How beautiful they stand.
2. Sorrow makes men sincere and anguish makes them earnest.
3. Cæsar was esteemed great for his favours and generosity;
Cato for the integrity of his life.
4. A thought often makes us hotter than a fire.
5. Stout Gloster stood aghast in speechless trance.
6. The bolt that strikes the towering cedar dead,
Oft passes harmless o'er the hazel's head.
7. Nothing makes the earth seem so spacious as having
friends at a distance.
8. Mankind are always happy for having been happy; so
that if you make them happy now you make them
happy twenty years hence by the memory of it.

9. There in seclusion, and remote from men,
 The wizard hand lies cold,
 Which at its topmost speed let fall the pen,
 And left the tale half told.
 Ah, who shall lift that wand of magic power,
 And the lost clew regain?
 The unfinished window in Aladdin's tower
 Unfinished must remain!
10. Perhaps this description of buffaloes will appear new to you; I can assure you that the first sight of them was so to me. They are larger and more clumsy than the ox, and have thick black horns close to their heads. They say this horn looks very beautiful when it is polished. They are all black, with very short hair on their hides, and have extremely little white eyes, that make them look like devils.

EXERCISE 77

Parse the italicized adjectives in the following, stating in each case whether it is attributive, appositive, or predicate:

The more we live, more *brief* appear
 Our life's succeeding stages;
 A day to childhood seems a year,
 And years like passing ages.

The *gladsome* current of our youth,
 Ere passion yet disorders,
 Steals *lingering* like a river *smooth*
 Along its *grassy* borders.

But as the careworn cheek grows *wan*,
 And sorrow's shafts fly *thicker*,
 Ye stars, that measure life to man,
 Why seem your courses *quicker*?

When joys have lost their bloom and breath,
 And life itself is *vapid*,
 Why as we reach the falls of Death
 Feel we its tide more *rapid*?

It may be *strange*,—yet who would change
Time's course to slower speeding,
When one by one our friends have gone
And left our bosoms *bleeding*?
Heaven gives our years of fading strength
Indemnifying fleetness,
And those of youth a seeming length,
Proportioned to their sweetness.

VI. LIMITING AND DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES

NOTE:—The following classification of adjectives is not so important for English grammar as the other classifications here given; but it will be found to be of value in considering the distinctions between limiting and descriptive adjective clauses (276).

186. **Classification According to Use.**—Besides being classified according to meaning and relation, adjectives may be divided into two main classes according to their use in the sentence:

Limiting, or Restrictive, Adjectives.—In the sentences,

Ask the *first* man that you meet;
He lives in a *white* house;

the adjectives *first* and *white* are used to limit the application of the nouns which they modify. The adjective *first* distinguishes this particular man from other men, and the adjective *white* distinguishes this particular house from other houses. Adjectives which are used in this way are said to be **limiting** or **restrictive**.

Descriptive, or Explanatory, Adjectives.—On the other hand in the following sentence:

Beneath those *rugged* elms, that yew tree's shade,
Where heaves the turf in many a mouldering heap,
Each in his *narrow* cell forever laid,
The *rude* forefathers of the hamlet sleep;

the adjectives *rugged*, *narrow*, and *rude*, are used simply to describe the persons or things represented by their respective nouns. The word *rugged*, for instance, is

used not for the purpose of distinguishing those elms from others, but merely for the purpose of explaining something as to their character. Adjectives which are used in this way are said to be descriptive, or explanatory.

EXERCISE 78

Show whether the italicized adjectives in the following sentences are limiting or descriptive:

1. Alone stood *brave* Horatius,
But constant still in mind;
Thrice thirty thousand foes before,
And the *broad* stream behind.
2. In days of *old*, when Arthur filled the throne,
Whose acts and fame to *foreign* lands were blown,
The king of elves and *little* fairy queen
Gambol'd on heaths and danced on *every* green;
And when the *jolly* troop had left the round,
The grass unbidden rose.
3. Oh, the grave, the grave! It buries *every* error, covers
every defect, extinguishes every resentment. From its
peaceful bosom spring none but *fond* regrets and tender
recollections.
4. *Magnificent* autumn! He comes not like a pilgrim clad
in russet weeds. He comes not like a hermit clad in
gray; but he comes like a warrior with the stain of
blood upon his *brazen* mail. His *crimson* scarf is rent;
his *scarlet* banner drips with gore. His step is like a
flail upon the *threshing* floor.

VII. OTHER FORMS OF ADJECTIVES

187. Other Parts of Speech.—Words that are ordinarily used as other parts of speech are sometimes used as adjectives:

(1) Words generally used as nouns. In the expressions,

A *brass* knocker; a *rail* fence; *autumn* leaves;
A weathered *oak* table;

the words *brass*, *rail*, *autumn*, and *oak*, are adjectives, but they are ordinarily used as nouns.

Nouns with an Adjectival Function.—In certain constructions, words that are commonly classified as nouns in reality have an adjectival value as well. For instance, words used as nouns in the possessive case, in apposition, in the predicate nominative or the objective predicate, also limit or describe in the same way as the adjective. Compare, for example, the functions of the italicized words in the following expressions:

Nouns:

the *government's* property; Edward VII, the *king*; this house is a *tenement*;

Adjectives:

government property; *king* Edward VII; this is a *tenement* house.

(2) Words generally used as adverbs. In the expressions,

the *then* ruler; the *above* remark; the *up* train;

the words *then*, *above*, *up*, are used as adjectives, but they are ordinarily used as adverbs.

188. Participles and Infinitives.—Participles, as we have seen already (32), are verbal adjectives; and as we shall see later (239), infinitives are also sometimes used as adjectives.

189. Phrases and Clauses may also be adjectival in value (44-47); as, for example,

the war *between Prussia and Austria*;
an *all round* scholar; the house *that Jack built*.

EXERCISE 79

Show the function of the italicized expressions in the following sentences, noting any variations from their ordinary uses:

1. *April* showers bring May flowers.
2. I do not know what the *after* effects may be like.
3. We may have a *thunder* storm this afternoon.
4. Thus ended our *almost* adventure.
5. A nod from a lord is a breakfast *for a fool*.
6. It was a picture *to be proud of*.
7. A mass of long weeds had attached themselves to the *underside* of the vessel.
8. The *steam* engine is a comparatively recent invention.
9. A man *who has nothing to do* is the devil's play-fellow.
10. Love rules the court, the camp, the grove,
And men *below* and gods *above*.

190. Adjectives Used as Nouns.—Just as words which are commonly used as nouns are sometimes used as adjectives, so also words which are ordinarily used as adjectives are sometimes used as nouns (130); thus,

The *strong* should bear the infirmities of the *weak*;
She was the *loveliest* of the *three*.

GENERAL EXERCISE

Parse the italicized adjectives in the following sentences:

1. *Every* man is the architect of his *own* fortune.
2. Hope springs *eternal* in the human breast.
3. Not *a* brick was made but *some* man had to think of the making of *that* brick.
4. He is the freeman whom the truth makes *free*.
5. At *twenty* years of age *the* will reigns, at thirty the wit, at *forty* the judgment.
6. The castle gate stands *open* now,
And the wanderer is *welcome* to the hall
As the hangbird is to the *elm-tree* bough.
7. *What* beckoning ghost along the moonlight shade
Invites *my* steps and points to *yonder* glade?
8. On Linden when the sun was *low*,
All *bloodless* lay the untrodden snow,
And *dark* as winter was the flow
Of Iser rolling rapidly.

9. Our *Old* Mother Nature has *pleasant* and cheery tones enough for us when she comes up in *her* dress of *blue* and gold over the *eastern* hilltops; but when she follows us upstairs to our beds in *her* suit of black velvet and diamonds, every creak of her sandals and *every* whisper of her lips is *full* of mystery and fear.
10. Long after the confusion of unloading was *over* and the ship lay as if *all* voyages were *ended*, I dared to creep timorously along the edge of the dock, and at great risk of falling in the *black* water of *its* huge shadow I placed my hand upon the *hot* hulk, and so established a mystic and exquisite connection with *Pacific* islands, with *palm* groves and *all* the passionate beauties *they* *embower*; with jungles, *Bengal* tigers, pepper, and the crushed feet of Chinese fairies. I touched Asia, *the* Cape of Good Hope, and the *Happy* Islands. I would not believe that the heat I *felt* was of our northern sun; in my finer *sympathy* it burned with *equatorial* fervours.

CHAPTER IX

THE VERB

I. CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO MEANING

191. Verbs Expressing Action.—Verbs are so varied in meaning that it is impossible to classify them fully on this basis. The majority of verbs, however, express action, and verbs expressing action may be considered as constituting a class by themselves. Examples are:

The fire *burns*;

The stars *shine* in the sky;

The soldiers *invade* the city.

But besides this general class to which most English verbs belong, there are a number of special classes which require consideration:

192. Auxiliary Verbs.—In the sentence,

We *shall see* you to-morrow;

the verb *shall* is used merely to express time, and the infinitive *see* represents the action which is to be performed. Verbs such as *shall* are called **auxiliary**, or “helping” verbs, because they merely help in the expression of the notions represented by the infinitives or participles completing them. Verbs, on the other hand, which in themselves express notions and are not mere helping verbs or auxiliaries, are known as **principal** verbs; thus, *see* in the foregoing sentence is the infinitive of a principal verb.

193. The Copula.—In the sentence,

The rose *is* a beautiful flower;

the verb *is* is used merely to assert that a connection exists between the notions represented by *rose* and *a*

beautiful flower. A verb which is used in this way is said to be a **copula**; that is, a connecting or "coupling" word.

NOTE:—The verb *to be* is the only verb that is used as a mere connective; but there are a number of verbs whose uses shade into that of the copula; for example:

He *seems* honest;
John *remained* silent;
We *feel* grieved.

194. The Substantive Verb.—In the sentence,

We know that such things *are*;

the verb *are* is used to express existence only. Verbs that are used in this way are known as **substantive verbs**. (*Substantive* is derived from the Latin verb *substare*, meaning "to be present," and hence, "to exist.")

EXERCISE 80

State whether the verb "to be" is used as a substantive verb, or as a copula, in each of the following sentences:

1. A thing of beauty is a joy forever.
2. Whatever is, is right.
3. There is no new thing under the sun.
4. Wisdom is better than rubies.
5. Darkness was upon the face of the earth.
6. There is a reaper whose name is Death.
7. To be or not to be, that is the question.
8. Honesty is the best policy.
9. All things that are, are with more pleasure chased than enjoyed.
10. The fool hath said in his heart, "There is no God."
11. In the middle of the garden was a fountain.
12. Men at some time are masters of their fate.
13. There is no education like adversity.
14. Custom is the plague of wise men and the idol of fools.
15. Live not without a God! However low or high,
In every house should be a window to the sky.

II. CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO FUNCTION

195. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.—But besides being classified according to meaning, verbs may be further classified according to the way in which they are used in the sentence.

When a verb expresses action and the expression is completed by a noun or a pronoun representing the thing upon which the action is exerted, the verb is said to be **transitive**; thus,

The children *gather flowers*;
The hunter *killed the deer*;
We *met him* this morning.

On the other hand, when the verb does not express action or the expression is not completed by any word representing the object of the action, the verb is said to be **intransitive**; thus,

How fast the river *runs*!
At daybreak on the hill we *stood*.

There are a few verbs such as *appear*, *arrive*, *remain*, etc., which are always used intransitively; but most English verbs may be used in either way, and it follows as a matter of course that we cannot tell whether a verb is transitive or intransitive unless we see how it is used in the sentence.

196. Verbs of Incomplete Predication.—But besides those verbs which are classified according to use as transitive or intransitive, there are, as we have already pointed out (20), certain verbs which are sometimes incomplete in themselves, and which require the addition of a predicate adjective or a predicate noun or pronoun, or an adverbial predicate adjective, to complete their sense; for example:

The leaves *are turning red*;
He *has proved a traitor*;
These grapes *taste sour*.

Verbs which are used in this way are known as **verbs of incomplete predication**; that is, verbs which by themselves do not make a complete assertion regarding the person or thing represented by the subject.

NOTE:—Strictly speaking, verbs of incomplete predication are intransitive, since they do not take an object; and some grammarians prefer to describe them as intransitive verbs of incomplete predication, as distinguished from the intransitive verbs of complete predication.

EXERCISE 81

Classify the verbs in the following sentences as (a) transitive, (b) intransitive without completion, (c) verbs of incomplete predication:

1. Each on the ground his scabbard threw.
2. Hark! how blithe the throstle sings.
3. In sooth I know not why I am so sad.
4. Now there came both mist and snow,
And it grew wondrous cold.
5. Adieu! Adieu! my native shore
Fades o'er the waters blue.
6. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.
7. Beauty without grace is the hook without the bait.
8. A gentleman makes no noise; a lady is serene.
9. Nothing in his life became him like the leaving of it.
10. The broken soldier, kindly bade to stay,
Sat by the fire and talked the night away.

Verbs of incomplete predication are generally divided into two classes:

(a) Those which are usually completed by a predicate noun or pronoun or a predicate adjective; for example, *be, become, grow, get, turn; remain, continue, stay; seem, appear, look, prove.*

NOTE:—In the sentences:

He was made angry by them;

They were called cannibals by him;

the passive verb phrases *was made* and *were called* are

verbs of incomplete predication completed by a predicate adjective and a predicate noun, respectively. When we change these sentences into the active, the verb in each case is followed by the objective predicate construction (124); thus,

They made him angry;

He called them cannibals

(b) Those which are usually completed by an adverbial predicate adjective; for example, *stand, run, sit, fly, sound, smell, taste, feel; live, die.*

It must be remembered that although these verbs are very frequently used as verbs of incomplete predication, they are not invariably so used, and that practically all of them may be used either as transitive verbs, or as intransitive verbs which do not require any completion; thus,

The physicians were unable to stay the progress of the disease;
When the tide turned, the vessel set sail.

EXERCISE 82

Select the predicate adjectives and the adverbial predicate adjectives in the following sentences and give their relations:

1. He seems content with life.
2. Be not simply good,—be good for something.
3. Glad did I live, and gladly die.
4. The rude sea grew civil at her song.
5. The eyes of the sleepers waxed deadly and chill.
6. Your house is left unto you desolate.
7. The crowd went wild with excitement.
8. The prisoner pleaded guilty.
9. This has turned out better than I expected.
10. Sky and water and forest seemed all on fire.
11. Thy valleys, fair as Eden's bowers,
 Glitter green with sunny showers.
12. Receding now, the dying numbers ring
 Fainter and fainter down the rugged dell.

III. CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO FORM

197. Old and New Conjugations.—Verbs are divided into two great classes according to conjugation; that is, according to the form used to express past time. The general characteristics of the verbs of these two conjugations are as follows:

(1) **Old Conjugation.**—In one conjugation there is no added ending for the past tense, but its vowel-sound is different from that of the stem, or root infinitive; the perfect participle ends in *-n* or *-en*, and its vowel-sound may be the same as that of the stem or of the past, or else may be different from both; thus,

Root Infin.,	give	Past Tense,	gave	Perf. Part.,	given
" "	bite	" "	bit	" "	bitten
" "	fly	" "	flew	" "	flown.

This is called the **old conjugation**, because the verbs belonging to it are primitive verbs.

(2) **New Conjugation.**—In the other conjugation, the past tense and the perfect participle are formed, both alike, by the addition of the suffix *-d*, *-ed*, or *-t*, to the stem or root infinitive; for example:

Root Infin.,	love	Past,	loved	Perf. Part.,	loved (pr. <i>d</i>)
" "	wish	" "	wished	" "	wished (pr. <i>t</i>)
" "	load	" "	loaded	" "	loaded (pr. <i>ed</i>)
" "	burn	" "	burned	" "	burned
			or burnt		or burnt.

This is called the **new conjugation**, because nearly all the verbs of this conjugation are of later origin than those of the other. Owing to the mode of forming the past tense the old conjugation is called by some the *vowel conjugation*, and the new, the *consonantal*. Sometimes, also the old conjugation is called the *strong*, and the new the *weak*.

198. Principal Parts.—The regular verbs of the new conjugation have only seven actually different forms; thus,

love, lovest, loves, or loveth; loved, lovedst; loving (loved); while the regular verbs of the old conjugation have eight; thus,

give, givest, gives, or giveth; gave, gavest; giving, given.

Using these two verbs in illustration, it is evident that if we know the root infinitives, *love* and *give*, the past tenses, *loved* and *gave*, and the perfect participles *loved* and *given*, we can construct the complete conjugations. Hence in any verb these three forms are known as the **principal parts**.

199. Irregular Verbs of the New Conjugation.—As stated above, verbs of the new conjugation generally form the past tense and the perfect participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the stem. In some verbs, however, the past tense and the perfect participle end in *t*, with or without a change in the vowel-sound of the stem; thus,

lend, lent; keep, kept; lose, lost.

Some verbs also have double forms of either the past tense or the perfect participle or of both; thus,

dress, dressed	burn, burned	bend, bended
or drest	or burnt	or bent.

Many of the verbs whose stems end in *d* or *t*, do not undergo a change in forming the past tense and the perfect participle; thus,

cost, cost; hurt, hurt; set, set.

In some verbs of this class, however, the vowel-sound of the stem undergoes a change; thus,

feed, fed; lead, led; meet, met.

A few verbs form the past tense and the perfect participle both by a change in the vowel-sound in the stem and by the addition of the suffix *ed*, *d*, or *t*; thus, sell, sold; tell, told; seek, sought; teach, taught.

These verbs, notwithstanding the change in vowel-sound, belong to the new conjugation; the addition of the new conjugation suffix, *ed*, *d*, or *t*, is the essential mark by which verbs of the new conjugation are distinguished from those of the old.

200. Verbs with Double Forms.—Two verbs of the new conjugation, *dare* and *need*, are slightly irregular.

Dare: When meaning “to challenge” *dare* is used as a regular verb of the new conjugation.

When meaning “to venture” it has the two forms, *dare* and *dares*, in the third singular present indicative. *Dare* is used when followed by a root infinitive, or by a negative adverb; thus,

He dare go no further; He dare not speak.

Dares is used in all other constructions. In the past tense it has also two forms, *durst* and *dared*, both of the new conjugation. The form *durst* is used when followed by a negative adverb; thus,

Cas.—When Cæsar lived he *durst not* thus have moved me.

Bru.—Peace, peace! you *durst not* so have tempted him.

The use of *durst* as a present tense form is incorrect.

Need: This verb resembles the verb *dare* in that it has two forms, *need* and *needs* in the third singular present indicative. The form *need* is used when followed by the root infinitive or by a negative adverb; thus,

Need he come? He *need not* speak.

The form *needs* is used in all other constructions.

201. Irregular Verbs of the Old Conjugation.—In modern English there remain only some seventy-five verbs of the old conjugation. In most of these verbs

the forms of the past tense and the perfect participle are very irregular. The following will serve as examples of different types:

drink	drank	drunk
strike	struck	struck
rise	rose	risen
freeze	froze	frozen
blow	blew	blown
come	came	come
lie	lay	lain.

202. Verbs Which Cannot be Classified.—Besides the verbs which may be described as belonging to the old or to the new conjugation, there are a few other verbs whose forms are so irregular that they cannot be properly classified.

Be is made up of parts coming from several different roots. For a full conjugation of this verb see Sections 222 and 226.

Go has for its past tense *went*, which is properly the past tense form of the verb *wend*.

Do has for its past tense *did*. At an early period in the development of the language many verbs formed their past tense by **reduplication**; that is, by doubling the stem. *Did* is supposed to be a reduplicated form which has survived in Modern English.

Wit has for its present *wot* and for past *wist*. It has no participles. As the result of a curious error we also have the expression **I wis**. In old English there was to be found an adverb *iwis*, meaning "certainly," and owing to its resemblance to the expression *I wist*, the notion arose that the *i* of *iwis* was a pronoun, and that *wis* was a present tense form of the verb *wist*.

Hight, meaning "was called"; **wont**, meaning "accustomed"; **worth**, meaning "become"; **quoth**, meaning "said," are defective forms.

EXERCISE 83

Give the principal parts of the following verbs:

be	dig	lead	read	spring
beat	do	let	rid	stride
bite	eat	light	run	swim
blow	freeze	lose	say	tear
burst	go	make	send	throw
buy	have	pay	shake	wear
cast	hold	put	shed	win
choose	know	quit	shrink	write.

203. Other Defective Verbs.—A small class of irregular verbs are used chiefly with infinitives of other verbs, and have neither infinitives nor participles of their own.

They are:

can, may, shall, will; must, ought.

The first four, though now valued as presents only, were originally pasts of the old conjugation; and hence, like other pasts, they have the third person singular like the first. Thus, for example:

- | | |
|------------|------|
| 1. can | can |
| 2. (canst) | can |
| 3. can | can. |

Having come to express only present time, these four verbs developed pasts made according to the new conjugation, but irregular, namely,

could, might, should, would.

These past tense forms are inflected regularly, taking *-est* or *-st* in the second person singular.

Originally *can* meant "to know";

" *may* meant "to have physical strength";

" *shall* meant "to owe";

" *will* meant "to will";

so that all four were at one time used as principal verbs.

Originally *must* and *ought* were pasts of the new conjugation, but now they are used chiefly as presents, and have no corresponding past tense forms.

NOTE:—Both *must* and *ought* express past time when followed by the infinitive *have* expressing completed action; thus,

He *must* surely *have* been here yesterday;

You *ought* to *have* known better.

In vulgar English, *ought* is sometimes incorrectly used as a perfect participle. Bret Harte's comments on this construction are as follows:

If of all sad words of tongue or pen

The saddest are, "It might have been!"

Far sadder these we daily see,

"It is, but it *hadn't ought* to be!"

IV. INFLECTION OF THE VERB—TENSE

As we have already pointed out, the verb is inflected for tense, mood, number and person; and we shall now consider these inflections in further detail.

204. Inflected Tense Forms.—In making any assertion we must always indicate in some way the *time* of the action or state expressed in the predicate; and the tense of the verb is the chief means we have of denoting time. The form of the verb which is used to indicate present time is called the **present tense form**; thus,

I am; he speaks; you strike.

The form of the verb which is used to indicate past time is called the **past tense form**; thus,

I was; he spoke; you struck.

The present and the past are the only tenses that are expressed in English by means of inflected forms. The future tense, as well as certain modifications of the present and past tenses, are expressed by means of verb phrases.

205. The Present Indefinite.—In speaking of an action taking place in the present time we generally think of

the present as including not merely the present moment, but a certain period of time, part of which may be actually past, as *to-day, this week, this year*. The inflected form of the present tense is used only when we merely wish to state in general that the action takes place in the present time, without indicating definitely whether it has already been completed or is in progress at the present moment. This form of the verb is accordingly known as the **present indefinite tense**.

NOTE:—(a) The present tense form of the verb is sometimes used to express future time, when the event is vivid or near at hand; thus,

I begin work on the first of next month;
Our friends *arrive* home in a few weeks.

(b) The present tense is sometimes used instead of the past, in animated narrative; thus,

All shops *are shut*. Paris *is* in the streets. The tocsin *is pealing* madly from all steeples;
Soon *is* the court convened; the jewelled crown
Shines on a menial's head; amid the throng
The monarch *stands*, and anxious for the event
His heart *beats* high.

When the present tense is used in this way instead of the past, it is known as the **historic present**.

206. **The Present Progressive.**—When, however, we wish to indicate that the action is *in progress* at the present time, we make use of a verb phrase composed of some part of the present tense of the verb *to be*, and the imperfect participle of the verb denoting the action we wish to speak of; thus,

We *are reading* a good story;
He *is living* in Vancouver.

A verb phrase of this character is described as a **present progressive verb phrase**.

207. The Present Perfect.—When on the other hand we wish to indicate that the action has already been *completed* within some present period of time, we make use of a verb phrase composed of some part of the present tense of the verb *have* followed by a perfect participle; thus,

We *have travelled* in Europe;

She *has told* the children a story.

A verb phrase of this character is described as a **present perfect verb phrase**.

208. Verbs Expressing Motion.—In addition to the usual form of the perfect verb phrase with *have*, a few verbs expressing motion have another form composed of some part of the verb *to be* with a perfect participle; thus,

Young Lochinvar *is come* out of the west;

Our cousin *is arrived* in town.

When we compare the two forms,

He *has come*;

He *is come*;

we find that the first form, *has come*, draws attention to the completion of the action itself, whereas the second form, *is come*, draws attention rather to the state following the completion of the action.

209. The Present Perfect Progressive.—But instead of expressing the fact that an action is in progress at the present time, or has been completed within the present period, we may wish to indicate that an action has been in progress up to the present time, but is now completed. In order to do this we combine the progressive and the perfect forms; thus,

I have been reading; He has been running.

This form is known as the **present perfect progressive verb phrase**.

210. The Past Tense.—The description that has been given of the various verb forms used to express present time will apply in general also to the verb forms which are used to express past time; and thus we have the following forms:

1. The past tense (indefinite):

He *went* to town yesterday.

2. The past progressive verb phrase:

He *was going* to town yesterday when I met him.

3. The past perfect (or *pluperfect*) verb phrase:

He *had gone* (or *was gone*) to town before I arrived.

4. The past perfect progressive verb phrase:

He *had been going* to town every day before I arrived.

EXERCISE 84

Name the inflected tense forms and the verb phrases which are used in each of the following sentences:

1. The lark has sung his carol in the sky.
2. Duncan comes here to-night.
3. The sun is setting in the west.
4. Our privileges have cost labour and sacrifice.
5. The post closes in half an hour.
6. The tongue is ever turning to the aching tooth.
7. By the sword they won their land,
And by the sword they hold it, still.
8. Wild roses were blooming among the grass and the weeds.
9. They set bread before him and he ate.
10. The melancholy days are come, the saddest of the year.

211. The Emphatic Verb Phrase.—Instead of the simple present and past tense forms of the verb we sometimes use a verb phrase composed of the present or the past of the verb *do* followed by the infinitive; thus,

Instead of *He speaks*; we may say, *He does speak*;

Instead of *He spoke*; we may say, *He did speak*.

This verb phrase with *do* is most frequently used as follows:

(a) For the sake of emphasis; thus,

The course of true love never *did* run smooth;
I never *did* like that style of hat.

It is also sometimes used in the same way in imperative sentences; thus,

Do come with us! *Do* be quiet!

(b) In interrogation, and in negation, to avoid abruptness; thus,

Does he sing or play? *Did* you not hear a noise?
We *do* not care for him; Pineapples *do* not grow in Canada.

(c) In poetry, for the sake of the metre; thus,

To seek thee *did* I often rove
Through woods and on the green;
We *did* speak only to break
The silence of the sea.

Because it is frequently used, as in (a) above, for the sake of emphasis, it is known as the **emphatic verb phrase**.

NOTE:—(1) See section 40 for the use of the verb *do* as a substitute verb.

(2) The use of the verb *do* as an auxiliary in the emphatic verb phrase must be distinguished from its use as a principal verb. For example, in the sentence,

Our servants *do* not *do* their work well;

the first *do* is an auxiliary; the second is the infinitive of a principal verb.

EXERCISE 85

Explain the function of the verb "do" in each of the following sentences:

1. *Do* you speak German?
2. I have *done* the deed.
3. I *did* not stop as long as the others *did*.
4. Oft *did* the harvest to their sickle yield.
5. You *do* know who I am! *Do* not deny it.
6. Without me ye can *do* nothing.
7. I *did* send to you for gold to pay my legions.

8. When you are in Rome you must *do* as the Romans *do*.
9. *Did* you ever cross the Atlantic?
10. *Do* please be careful where you are going.
11. Whatsoever ye would that men should *do* to you, *do* ye even so to them.
12. Thus *do* we walk with her and keep unbroken
The bond which nature gives.

V. FUTURE VERB PHRASES

212. The Simple Future.—We have no inflected future tense form in English, and future time is expressed by means of a verb phrase composed of some part of the present tense of *shall* or *will* followed by an infinitive; thus,

I shall speak; He will go; You will see him.

NOTE:—Future time is also sometimes expressed by means of a phrase composed of some part of the present tense of the verb *to be* followed by the imperfect participle of the verb *go*; thus,

I am going to study Browning next year.

As we have already pointed out (203), the verbs *shall* and *will* originally were principal verbs with a meaning of their own. *Shall* meant “to be under an obligation” and *will* meant “to be resolved to.” In modern English, however, when used as auxiliaries, both verbs always express future time, but in some of their uses they express simple futurity only, while in other cases they retain something of their original meaning besides.

When we wish to express simple futurity only, we use *shall* along with a subject in the first person; and *will* along with a subject in the second or the third person; thus,

I shall give

Thou wilt give

(You will give)

He will give

We shall give

You will give

They will give.

A verb phrase such as the foregoing is known as a **simple future verb phrase**,

213. The Promissive Future.—When besides indicating future time we wish to express the ideas of *willing* or of *obligation* by means of *will* and *shall*, we use *will* along with a subject in the first person, and *shall* along with a subject in the second or the third person; thus,

I will give	We will give
Thou shalt give	You shall give
(You shall give)	
He shall give	They shall give.

A verb phrase such as the foregoing is known as a **promissive future verb phrase**.

It is quite evident that if we use the verb *will* in the sense of "to be resolved," it can be used only with a subject of the first person, for the speaker is the only person who can exercise his own will. Similarly when we use the verb *shall* in the sense of "to be under an obligation," it can be used only in the second or the third person, for we can speak of bringing force to bear upon the actions of others, but not upon our own.

The promissive future verb phrase is so named because it is very frequently used to express promise; thus,

Whatsoever ye shall ask in my name, that *will* I do.

Besides expressing promise, however, it is used also to express other varieties of willing or of obligation, such as determination, command, prophecy; thus,

I *will* know the truth,—I insist upon it;
 Thou *shalt* not steal;
 He that overcometh *shall* inherit all things.

214. Summary.—Considering *will* and *shall* separately, we may then sum up their regular uses as follows:

I will, we will	to express promise and determination.
Thou wilt, you will	
He will, they will	to express simple futurity.

I shall, we shall	to express simple futurity.
Thou shalt, you shall	to express promise, obligation, command, prophecy, certainty.
He shall, they shall	

EXERCISE 86

Classify the verb phrases in the following sentences as (a) *simple future*, (b) *promissive future*:

1. When *shall* we three meet again?
2. Everything comes if a man *will* only wait.
3. Thou *shalt* not bear false witness against thy neighbour.
4. Them that honour me I *will* honour.
5. *Shall* I post that letter for you?
6. All that a man hath *will* he give for his life.
7. You *shall* see my face no more.
8. The floating clouds their state *shall* lend to her.
9. A man *will* turn over half a library to make one book.
10. Here *will* we sit and let the sound of music creep into our ears.

215. Special Uses of Will.—But besides being used to express promise and determination in the first person, and simple futurity in the second and third persons, *will* has certain special uses which may be described as follows:

(1) **With a Compound Subject.** In such sentences as,

You and I *will* go;
 We all *will* be there;
 We boys *will* go to see him;

the verb *will* is used to express simple futurity, although it has for its subject a pronoun of the first person. This is accounted for by the fact that the first person pronoun in the subject has a word in the second or the third person associated with it which attracts attention. When, however, a pronoun in the first per-

son alone precedes the verb, *shall* and not *will* is used to express simple futurity; thus,

We *shall* all go to see him.

(2) **Expressing a Softened Command.** In such sentences as,

You *will* please observe the following rules;
The audience *will* kindly remain seated;

the verb *will* is used in the second and the third person to express a softened command. It is assumed that the speaker's wish will be complied with.

(3) **Expressing Habitual or Persistent Action.** In such sentences as,

He *will* stay away from home for days at a time;
Accidents *will* happen;
They *will* persist in coming to see us;

the verb *will* is used to express habitual, repeated, or persistent action.

(4) **Expressing Conjecture.** In such sentences as,

This *will* be his meaning, no doubt;
He *will* probably have reached home by this time;

the verb *will* is used to express conjecture.

(5) **As a Principal Verb.** In such sentences as,

I can do what I *will*;
Since he *wills* it I will obey him;
He *willed* his property to his nephew;

the verb *will* is not used as an auxiliary, but as a principal verb with a meaning of its own. When so used it has the regular inflection of a new conjugation verb.

216. Shall and Will in Subordinate Clauses.—*Shall* and *will* are used in the same way in subordinate as in principal clauses. When, however, the verb in the principal clause is in the past tense, we use *should* and *would* (the past tense forms of *shall* and *will*) in the

subordinate clause. For example, in the present tense we say,

I am determined that he *shall* come; (*promissive*);

We believe that he *will* be there; (*simple future*);

but in the past we express ourselves as follows:

I was determined that he *should* come; (*promissive*);

We believed that he *would* be there; (*simple future-past*).

When *should* and *would* are used in this way to express future time as viewed from some point of time in the past, they are called *future-pasts*.

217. Shall and Will in Interrogative Sentences.—In expressing future time in the interrogative sentence we use either *will* or *shall* according as we expect that the one or the other will be used in reply. Thus we say *Will you go?* when we anticipate the promissive answer *I will (or will not) go*; and we say *Shall you go?* when we are inquiring as to probable action in the future, and expect the reply, *I shall (or shall not) go*.

EXERCISE 87

Describe the function of "will" and "shall" in each of the following sentences:

1. A small leak *will* sink a ship.
2. Thou *shalt* love thy neighbour as thyself.
3. He *will* probably have heard the news before this.
4. The spirits of your fathers *shall* start from every wave.
5. A grain of vitriol *will* tinge a gallon of water.
6. The sluggard *will* not plough by reason of the cold.
7. They that sow in tears *shall* reap in joy.
8. Visitors *will* please enter by the side door.
9. I *will* fight it out on this line if it takes all summer.
10. H.—Katharine, *wilt* thou have me?
K.—That is as it *shall* please the king, my father.
H.—Nay it *will* please him well, Kate; it *shall* please him, Kate.

11. Not as a child *shall* we again behold her,
For when with raptures wild
In our embraces we again enfold her,
She *will* not be a child.
12. While the earth remaineth, seedtime and harvest, cold
and heat, and summer and winter *shall* not fail.
13. None are so blind as those who *will* not see.
14. Nothing *shall* prevent me from carrying out my plans.
15. Blessed are the meek, for they *shall* inherit the earth.

EXERCISE 88

In the following sentences fill in the blanks with the proper auxiliary, "will" or "shall":

1. I — be ten years old next June.
2. We hope you — be able to come.
3. I — be drowned and nobody — save me.
4. Truth crushed to earth — rise again.
5. I — arise and go to my father.
6. — I call for you at four o'clock?
7. No one entering the contest — receive any assistance.
8. — you lend me your umbrella?
9. I — be very happy to see you.
10. — you assist me in removing this burden?
11. Nothing — ever make me forget that.
12. She must weep or she — die.
13. We doubt if we — be able to go.
14. Do you suppose they — know where to stop?
15. — you give me another chance?
16. I am determined that the thief — be caught.
17. You — have an answer on Monday.
18. In spite of all that I have said he — continue to wear that hat.
19. — we come now or — we wait till to-morrow?
20. Employees — kindly report at the head office.

218. Sequence of Tenses.—In general it holds true of all sentences containing reported speech that the tense of the verb in the subordinate clause must depend

upon the tense of the verb in the principal clause; and this agreement is known as the **sequence of tenses**. For example, in each of the following sentences:

We *believe* that he *is* guilty;

He *decides* that he *will* come;

if we change the verb in the principal clause from the present to the past tense we must also change the verb in the subordinate clause to the past tense; thus,

We *believed* that he *was* guilty;

He *decided* that he *would* come.

NOTE:—Contrary to the rule for the sequence of tenses, even though the tense of the verb in the governing clause is past, the tense of the verb in the subordinate clause remains in the present, when the dependent clause states something that is always true; thus,

He inquired how far it *is* to Montreal;

Galileo maintained that the earth *is* round.

219. Summary.—The following conjugation of the verb *give* in the first person singular, shows the various tense forms of the verb in the indicative:

PRESENT

Indefinite	I give.
Progressive	I am giving.
Perfect	I have given.
Perfect Progressive	I have been giving.
Emphatic	I do give.

PAST

Indefinite	I gave.
Progressive	I was giving.
Perfect	I had given.
Perfect Progressive	I had been giving.
Emphatic	I did give.

FUTURE

Indefinite	I shall give.
Progressive	I shall be giving.
Perfect	I shall have given.
Perfect Progressive	I shall have been giving.

VI. INFLECTION OF THE VERB—MOOD : THE INDICATIVE

220. Meaning of the Term Mood.—As we have already seen (75), besides expressing a difference in time, verbs are used to indicate different modes in which the speaker views the state or action expressed by the verb. This difference in use is known as a difference in mood. (*Mood* means “mode,” or “manner”.)

221. The Indicative Mood.—The assertion may be a simple statement of what the speaker treats as fact, whether it actually is a fact or not; thus,

John went; He says that I was there; It may rain to-morrow.

And in,

The Americans own Canada; The sun moves round the earth; the speaker treats as facts the Americans owning Canada, and the sun’s moving round the earth, although, as every one knows, neither is a fact.

In the above sentences, the verbs are said to be in the **indicative mood** (*indicative* means simply “pointing out,” or “stating”); that is, the mood of simple assertion.

222. Conjugation of Simple Tenses in the Indicative.—The following is the conjugation of the regular verb *give*, and of the auxiliaries *be* and *have*, in the present and past tenses of the indicative mood:

Present—

give	give	am	are	have	have
givest	give	art	are	hast	have
gives (giveth)	give	is	are	has(hath)	have

Past—

gave	gave	was	were	had	had
gavest	gave	wast (wert)	were	hadst	had
gave	gave	was	were	had	had

NOTE:—(a) The regular verb has only three inflectional endings, which are indicated in heavy type. In the third singular present an older form in *th* exists side by side with the modern form in *s*. This older form is found chiefly in poetry, Scripture, and elevated language.

(b) The verb *to be* is very irregular. Besides the plural form *are*, in the present tense, we sometimes find an older plural form *be*; for example,

They *be* blind leaders of the blind.

In the second singular past tense we find two forms, *wast* and *wert*. *Wert* is the older form.

(c) In the present tense of *have*, the forms *has*, *hast*, and *hath* are contractions of *haves*, *haves*, and *haveth*; and in the past tense *had* is a contraction of *haved*.

VII. MOOD: THE SUBJUNCTIVE

223. The Subjunctive Mood.—But the assertion may be a statement of what the speaker treats as a mental conception; that is, as something merely *thought of*, not as actually existing independently of his thoughts; thus,

If I be successful; Though he go; Supposing he were here; God be with us; Lest she forget her duty.

In the above expressions the verbs are said to be in the **subjunctive** mood (*subjunctive* means “subjoined” in the sense of “dependent”); or, as it is sometimes called, the *thought* mood, to distinguish it from the indicative or *fact* mood.

224. Different Uses of the Subjunctive.—As the subjunctive mood expresses a mere conception of the mind rather than a fact, it may be found in statements of various kinds. The most common are those expressing:

(1) A desire, either directly or indirectly stated; thus,

God *save* thee, ancient mariner!

I suggest that he *go* with us to-morrow.

- (2) A purpose; thus,
Mark him well lest he *deceive* thee.
- (3) A concession; thus,
Howe'er it *be*, it seems to me
'Tis only noble to be good;
Greater love hath no man than this, that a man *lay* down
his life for his friends.
- (4) A condition; thus,
If thine enemy *hunger*, feed him; if he *thirst*, give him
drink.

In such complex sentences, the subordinate clause which expresses the condition, is called the **conditional** clause; and the principal clause which asserts what results from, or depends upon, the fulfilment of the condition, is called the **consequent** clause. (*Consequent* means "resulting from" or "dependent on.")

- (5) An uncertainty; thus,

I cannot tell whether he *be* yet living or no.

225. Tendency to Discard the Subjunctive.—The simple subjunctive is still found in good prose, but more often in poetry; for it adds to the grace and refinement of language; but owing to our desire to drop unnecessary distinctions, the tendency at present is to discard it in speaking and in less formal composition. Thus, for example, in each of the sentences:

See that all *are* present; I asked him if he *was* there;

When he *comes* I will speak to him;

If to-morrow *is* fair I will start early;

the subordinate clauses really express not what is a fact, but what is merely thought of; but it is not so expressed.

Indeed, except in a wish, a concession, or a condition contrary to the fact, or in the emphatic expression of a possibility, the indicative is used instead of the subjunctive, even in literary English, or its place is taken by verb phrases.

226. Conjugation of Simple Tenses in the Subjunctive.

—The following is the conjugation of the regular verb *give* and of the auxiliaries *be* and *have* in the present and past tenses of the subjunctive mood:

Present

give	give	be	be	have	have
give	give	be (beest)	be	have	have
give	give	be	be	have	have

Past

gave	gave	were	were	had	had
gavest (gave)	gave	wert	were	hadst (had)	had
gave	gave	were	were	had	had.

NOTE:—1. The subjunctive of the regular verb has no inflections except in the second singular of the past tense. The verb *to be* is the only verb in the language which has a special form for the subjunctive. Those forms, in all three verbs, which differ from the corresponding forms of the indicative, are printed in heavy type.

2. The past tense form of the verb in the subjunctive mood does not always express past time, but is very frequently used to express a remote possibility or an improbability, in the present or the future. For instance, in the sentence,

If he *be* (or *is*) in town to-day, I shall see him;

his being in town is conceived of as a possibility. But in the sentence,

If he *were* in town to-day, I should see him;

his being in town is represented as merely thought of, and it is implied that it is contrary to fact. *Were* is not here used to express past time.

VIII. SUBJUNCTIVE VERB PHRASES

227. Forms and Uses.—The verb phrases with *may* and *might* and *should* and *would* may often be substituted for the simple subjunctive, with, of course, the same value. Thus, for example:

(1) A desire, either directly or indirectly expressed:

May God <i>be</i> with us!	FOR God <i>be</i> with us!
The judge decided that	" The judge decided
he <i>should leave</i> the	that he <i>leave</i> the
country.	country.

(2) A purpose:

Judge not, that ye <i>may</i>	" Judge not that ye <i>be</i>
not <i>be judged</i> .	not <i>judged</i> .

(3) A concession:

Though it <i>should be</i>	" <i>Be</i> it ever so humble
ever so humble there's	there's no place
no place like home.	like home.

(4) A condition:

<i>Should</i> to-morrow <i>be</i>	" If to-morrow <i>be</i> fair
fair, we will start early.	we will start early.

NOTE:—In clauses expressing a concession, or a condition, the subordinative conjunction is sometimes omitted and the order of words in the subordinate clause is then inverted as in the foregoing example.

(5) A supposition, or an uncertainty:

It <i>would be</i> best that he	FOR 'Twere best he <i>speak</i>
<i>should speak</i> no harm of	no harm of Brutus
Brutus here.	here.
Come before it <i>may be</i>	" Come before it <i>be</i>
too late.	too late.

And all other subjunctive verb phrases are used in the same way; that is, to assert what the speaker treats not as actual fact, but as merely thought of.

Although *might*, *should*, and *would* are past tense forms they do not always express past time, but, as we have seen, are used to express something as merely thought of. For instance, the sentences,

It is possible that I *may* see him to-morrow;

It is possible that I *might* see him to-morrow;

both imply that my seeing him is a merely thought of; in the second sentence, however, the use of the past tense form, *might*, implies that it is a more remote possibility.

228. Uses of Should and Would.—In general the rules for the use of *should* and *would* are the same as those given above for *shall* and *will* (212, 213). In the consequent clause:

(a) *Should* is used in the first person, and *would* in the second and third to express simple consequence; thus,

	I should give it;
If help were required,	thou would'st give it;
	he would give it.

(b) *Would* is used in the first person, and *should* in the second and third, if the consequence is considered as the result of some outside force such as the exercise of the speaker's will; thus,

	I would give it;
If help were required,	thou should'st give it;
	he should give it;

In the conditional clause *should* is used in all three persons to express simple condition, because the action is considered as dependent upon some influence outside of the person represented by the subject; thus,

I should
If—thou should'st do so, they would feel sorry.
he should

229. Indicative and Subjunctive Values.—The uses of *may*, *might*, *should* and *would* as auxiliaries in the subjunctive must be distinguished from their uses in the indicative, in which they retain to some extent their original value as principal verbs; thus:

When *may* and *might* express a wish, purpose, or concession they are mere auxiliaries helping to form the subjunctive verb phrase; for example:

O that I might (*wish*) find him!

Give him a book that he may (*purpose*) amuse himself;

No matter how hard he may (*concession*) work he cannot succeed.

When, however, they express permission or possibility they are principal verbs, and are generally in the indicative; for example:

No one may (*permission*) enter the building after nightfall;
He might (*possibility*) be seen any day walking in the fields.

So also when *would* and *should* express a mere conception of the mind they are auxiliaries helping to form subjunctive verb phrases; thus,

If I should (*condition*) meet him, I would not speak to him;
I was anxious that he should (*wish*) come to see me.

But when they are used with their original meaning of willing or of obligation they are principal verbs, and are generally in the indicative; thus,

He would (*willing*) not come when I called him;
If I should (*duty*) go, why, I suppose I must;
He should (*inference*), I think, arrive home to-morrow.

When *should* and *would* are used in this way to express obligation and willing, respectively, they are much more strongly emphasized by the speaker than when used merely to express condition or consequence.

Would is used also in the past tense, in the same way as *will* in the present (215), to express habitual, or persistent action; thus,

He *would* insist on paying my way;
His listless length at noontide *would* he stretch.

EXERCISE 89

Describe the function of "*would*" and "*should*" in each of the following sentences:

1. I would not live alway!
2. If we would work hard we should succeed.
3. Though he should slay me yet would I trust in him.
4. If you would wait I would go with you.
5. You should not be so easily discouraged.
6. What would happen if we should fail?
7. I know that I should help you, but I cannot.

8. I would be friends with you and have your love.
9. We should strive to imitate what we most admire in others.
10. He would not be seen here for all the world.
11. Quarrels would not last long if the fault were only on one side.
12. Wherever he be I would that I were with him.
13. Should auld acquaintance be forgot?
14. O, Jerusalem, Jerusalem, how often would I have gathered thy children together, even as a hen gathereth her chickens under her wings, and ye would not.
15. No friendship can survive the gift of gold. This gold turns my friend into my benefactor; and O, ye gods, protect me from a benefactor as you would protect me from a foe. I should be grateful, very grateful. I should serve him to the uttermost. I should put my neck beneath his feet and I should be apt to pray him once for all to press upon it as heavily as he could.

EXERCISE 90

Explain the values of "shall," "will," "should," and "would" in the following:

He.—I shall go to town to-morrow. Of course you will?

She.—No, thanks, I shall wait for better weather, if that will ever come. When shall we have three fair days together again?

He.—You should go. I should like to have you hear the opera. Besides, our friends would be glad to see us.

She.—No, no; I will not go.

He.—(to himself) But you shall go. (to her) Well, remember, if you should change your mind, I shall be very happy to have your company. Do come; you would enjoy the opera; and you shall have the nicest possible supper afterwards. Now, won't you? Remember, I said I should go.

She.—No; I should not enjoy the opera; and I wouldn't walk to the end of the drive for the best supper you will ever give me. You seem to think I would do anything for something good to eat.

He.—Most human creatures will. Well, if you will stay at home, you shall. But my trip would be dull without you. I should be bored to death—that is, unless, indeed, your friend, Mrs. Dashatt Mann, should go, as she said she thought she would.

She.—(to herself) My dear friend, Mrs. Dashatt Mann! She shall find that I am mistress of the situation. (to him) John, why should you waste yourself upon those ugly, giggling girls?

He.—O, think what I will about that, I must take them; and indeed it wouldn't be quite proper to take her alone, would it? What should you say?

She.—It doesn't matter much, I should say. But it's too bad you should be bored with her nieces, and since you will have me go with you—and—and—after all I should like to hear the opera and—you shan't be going about with those cackling girls—well, John, dear, I'll go.

IX. MOOD—THE IMPERATIVE

230. Forms and Uses.—But besides stating a fact by means of the indicative mood, or a mere conception of the mind by means of the subjunctive, the speaker may wish to give expression to a command, exhortation, or entreaty; thus,

Get thee gone! Be patient, dear friends.

When a verb is used in this way it is said to be in the **imperative mood**. Since we can give a direct command only in the present time, and only to the person spoken to, it is evident that the verb in the imperative can be used only in the second singular and the second plural, present tense. These forms have no inflectional endings; for example:

Go thou and do likewise;

Listen to what I shall say!

The verb *to be*, however, has the special form *be* in both singular and plural of the imperative.

231. The Subjunctive Substituted.—The subjunctive is used often, as we have seen, to express a desire in the third person; thus,

Peace *be* with you;
The Lord *deal* between thee and me.

And sometimes in poetry and the more solemn style, in the first person; thus,

Part we in friendship from your land;
“Now *tread* we a measure,” said young Lochinvar.

When so used, the subjunctive seems to form a sort of substitute for the imperative in the first and third persons.

232. The Phrasal Imperative.—But besides the subjunctive, another mode of expression, made with a kind of imperative auxiliary, *let*, is much used in order to intimate a wish or instruction in the third person and even in the first; thus,

Let me (or us) *give*; *Let* him (her, it, or them) *give*;
Let the messenger *set* out at once.

This combination of *let* with an infinitive is so common that it seems to us to supply the place of the missing first and third persons of the imperative mood; and it is sometimes described as an **imperative verb phrase**.

Here *let* is plainly a real imperative, and *give* an infinitive, to which the intervening noun or pronoun stands in the relation of subject, just as in such combinations as “*Make* him *go*”; “*See* him *give*”; or “*Cause* him *to give*”; but, in the phrasal imperative, the independent meaning of *let* has become weakened.

EXERCISE 91

State the tense and mood of each of the italicized verbs in the following sentences:

1. Mine *be* a cot beside the hill.
2. Though the waves *are* raging white
I'll row you o'er the ferry.
3. *Were* man but constant he *were* perfect.
4. Awake, *arise*, or be forever fallen.
5. Knowledge comes, but wisdom *lingers*.
6. If it *were* so, it *was* a grievous fault.
7. Ere thou *remark* another's sin,
Bid thy own conscience look within.
8. He *maketh* the storm a calm, and the waves thereof are still.
9. I would my daughter *were* dead at my foot and the jewels in her ear.
10. Not enjoyment and not sorrow
Is our destined end or way;
But to act that each to-morrow
Find us farther than to-day.
11. If thou *be* the Son of God, command that these stones *be* made bread.
12. Now *go* we in content,
To liberty and not to banishment.

EXERCISE 92

Explain what shade of meaning is expressed by the italicized verbs in each of the following sentences:

1. *Reprove* not a scorner lest he *hate* thee.
2. Let him that *standeth* take heed lest he *fall*.
3. We *will* make the Spaniard promise, if we yield, to let us go;
We *shall* live to fight again and to strike another blow.
4. If she *be* not fair to me,
What care I how fair she *be*?
5. They *shall* bear thee up in their hands lest thou *dash* thy foot against a stone.

6. If he *be* not in love with some woman, there is no believing old signs. He brushes his hat o'mornings. What *should* that *bode*?
7. The meteor flag of England
Shall yet terrific *burn*;
 Till danger's troubled night *depart*
 And the star of peace return.
8. What *shall* I *render* unto the Lord for all His benefits toward me? I *will take* the cup of salvation and call upon the name of the Lord.

EXERCISE 93

Distinguish between the meanings of the alternative forms in each of the following:

1. I am (have) come that ye might have life.
2. A messenger will (shall) be despatched immediately.
3. Though the moon is (be) hid the night will not be dark.
4. If I had plenty of money I would (should) go to Europe next year.
5. We have bought our tickets to Vancouver.
 We have our tickets to Vancouver bought.
6. If it snows (snowed) all night the roads will (would) be impassable.
7. The procession started (had started) before we reached the village.
8. If thou be (art) the Son of Man, command that these stones be made bread.
9. Wheat has sold (has been selling) for a dollar a bushel during the past week.
10. We will (shall) (are to) (have to) (are going to) attend the concert this evening.

X. THE PASSIVE CONJUGATION

233. The Active and Passive Conjugations.—If we compare the sentences,

The hunter killed a bear;

A bear was killed by the hunter;

we shall find that in the first sentence the subject represents the person who performs the action ex-

pressed by the verb, while in the second sentence the subject represents the thing upon which the action expressed by the verb is performed. This difference in the meaning of the two sentences is indicated partly by a change in the order of the words, but chiefly by a difference in the form of the verbs. Verbs such as *killed* in the first sentence are said to belong to the **active conjugation** because they are used when the person or thing represented by the subject is said to perform the action. Verbs such as *was killed*, in the second sentence, are said to belong to the **passive conjugation** (Latin *patior*, "I suffer") because they are used when the subject stands for the person or thing upon whom the action is performed. In highly inflected languages, such as Latin, the passive conjugation of the simple tenses consists of inflected verb forms. In Modern English, however, we have no inflection for the passive, and a verb phrase, consisting of some part of the verb *to be* followed by a perfect (or passive) participle, must always be used when we wish to show that the person or thing represented by the subject is acted upon; thus,

Gold *is found* in the Yukon;

The house *was burned* to the ground.

We have passive verb phrases corresponding to nearly all of the verb forms of the active conjugation. For a complete table of the passive conjugation see Appendix IV.

EXERCISE 94

Change each of the following sentences from the active to the passive:

1. Vice produces misery.
2. Music helps not the toothache.
3. The clouds obscured the moon.
4. Every citizen must obey the laws.

5. Vinegar dissolves pearls.
6. Morse invented the telegraph.
7. Praise ye the name of the Lord.
8. The servant has opened the door.
9. Millet painted "The Angelus" and "The Gleaners."
10. The beating of the drum roused the soldiers.
11. The early spring floods have carried away the bridge.
12. Cæsar leaves Gaul, crosses the Rubicon, and enters Italy.
13. The death of Claudius revived the fainting spirits of the Goths.
14. I always answer letters on the day that I receive them.
15. Every one laughs at his opinions.

EXERCISE 95

Parse each of the italicized verbs in the following passage:

I *shall come* and live in the Louvre, I think. I feel as if I never want to go away. I *had not been* ten minutes in the place before I fell in love with the most beautiful creature the world *has ever seen*. She *was standing*, silent and majestic, in the centre of one of the rooms of the statue gallery, and the very first glimpse of her *struck* one breathless with a sense of her beauty. I could not see the colour of her eyes and hair exactly, but the latter is light, and the eyes, I *should think*, are grey. Her complexion is of a beautiful warm marble tinge. She is not a clever woman, evidently; I *do not think* she laughs or talks much,—she *seems* too lazy to do more than smile. She is only beautiful.

This divine creature *has lost* her arms, which *have been cut off* at the shoulders, but she *looks* none the less lovely for the accident. She *may be* some two and thirty years old, and she *was born* two thousand years ago.

Her name is the Venus of Milo. O Victrix! O lucky Paris! How could he give the apple to any else but this enslaver, this joy of gods and men? at whose benign presence the flowers *spring* up, and the smiling ocean sparkles, and the soft skies beam with serene light!

O thou generous Venus! O thou beautiful, bountiful calm! At thy soft feet *let me kneel* on cushions of Tyrian purple!

EXERCISE 96

Describe the verb phrases in the following sentences:

1. The Ides of March *are come!*
2. Our thoughts *are heard* in heaven.
3. Their furrow oft the stubborn glebe *has broke*.
4. He *is* for ever *plotting* how to do some good.
5. Every turf beneath their feet
Shall be a soldier's sepulchre.
6. A little nonsense now and then
Is relished by the wisest men.
7. At nightfall, when they *had reached* the place, they found only embers and ashes.
8. Knowledge, like timber, *shouldn't be* much *used* until it *is seasoned*.
9. The age of chivalry *is gone*: that of sophists, economists, and calculators *has succeeded*, and the glory of Europe *is extinguished* for ever.
10. The noble stag *was pausing* now
Upon the mountain's southern brow.
11. The bridegroom's doors *are opened* wide,
And I am next of kin;
The guests *are met*, the feast *is set*,
May'st hear the merry din.
12. Why *was* this waste of ointment *made*? For it *might have been sold* for more than three hundred pence and have been given to the poor.

XI. THE INFINITIVE

234. **Function of the Infinitive.**—We have already seen that there exist in the English language certain verbal forms known as infinitives and participles (31-32), and we have seen also that these forms are used in the formation of verb phrases of various kinds. We shall now proceed to consider in greater detail the nature, classification, and uses of the infinitive and the participle.

To say, "He gives," or "He goes," is to declare that some one is the doer of a certain action at the present time. Verbs such as *gives* or *goes* in these sentences, whose application is limited to a particular subject, and which undergo changes of form to express tense, and mood, are known as **finite** (or "limited") verbs.

The simple action represented by *gives* and *goes*, without reference to a subject, may, however, be expressed by *giving* or *to give*, and *going* or *to go*, which may be used as nouns as subjects or objects of verbs; thus,

To give is better than *to receive*; We thought of *going* to Europe next year.

The forms *to give*, *giving*, *to go*, *going*, *go*, as thus used, express a general idea of action or state which is *not limited* to a particular subject, and they do not express tense and mood as do the real verb forms. They are accordingly known as **infinitives**. (*Infinitive* means "unlimited" or "indefinite.") The infinitive is then a species of *verbal noun*, and it expresses in noun form that which the verb asserts.

NOTE:—The infinitive possesses only certain characteristics of the noun; it is the name of an action or state; it is used in the various case constructions of the noun; it may be modified by an adjective; thus,

To forgive is divine;

Plain *living* and high *thinking* are no more.

It differs from the ordinary noun, however, in that it is never used in the plural.

The infinitive also possesses certain characteristics of the verb; it expresses action or state and involves the idea of time; it sometimes takes an object; and it may be modified by an adverb; thus,

Defend me from the toil

Of *dropping* buckets into empty wells

And *growing* old in *drawing* nothing up.

It differs from the regular finite verb, however, in that it does not possess the inflections of the verb or its power of predication. The infinitive implies time, but the idea of *definite* time which seems to belong to it in the sentence is only infused into it by the main verb; thus in,

I like (or liked, or shall like) *to give* (or *giving*),

the condition of the act expressed by the infinitives *to give* or *giving*, is present, or past, or future, according as the main verb is present, or past, or future.

235. Subject of the Infinitive.—But although the infinitive does not make an assertion, it may nevertheless have a subject; for since the infinitive expresses action or state, there is usually some person or thing who is represented as the doer of the action, or to whom the state is attributed. For instance, in the sentence,

Full many a *flower* is born *to blush* unseen;

flower, which is subject of the finite verb *is born*, is also subject of the infinitive *to blush*. And in the sentence,

Now lettest thou thy *servant* depart in peace;

servant, which is object of the finite verb *lettest*, is also subject of the infinitive *depart*. From this last example it will be seen that the subject of an infinitive need not be in the nominative case.

236. Different Forms of the Infinitive.—The simple infinitive has three forms:

(1) **Root Infinitive.**—One form is the same as the stem, or root-word, of the verb; as *go*, *give*. It is accordingly called the **root infinitive**.

(2) **Gerundial Infinitive.**—The second form has the sign *to*, as *to go*, *to give*. The form with *to* is distinguished as the **gerundial** infinitive in reference to its representing, in some of its uses, the dative case of the Old English infinitive, which case is called *gerundial*, on account of the resemblance of some of its uses to those of the Latin gerund.

The *to* of this so-called gerundial infinitive has not always the same value. Sometimes it is a mere sign without any meaning, as in, "He likes *to go*"; "To give is pleasant"; but at other times the *to* is a real preposition as in, "A house *to let*"; "He is anxious *to see us*."

(3) **Gerund.**—The third form ends in *-ing*, as *giving*, *going*. Partly to distinguish it from the others, and

partly because it is believed to be different in origin, the form is known as the *gerund*. (*Gerund* means "carry-ing on," the reference being to the continuous action or state which the Latin *gerund* was regarded as expressing.)

237. Infinitive Phrases.—Both the root infinitive and the *gerund* have phrasal forms in the perfect, progressive, and passive. In the following table both the simple and the phrasal forms are given:

Infinitive

	Ordinary	Progressive	Passive
Simple	(to) give	(to) be giving	(to) be given
Perfect	(to) have given	(to) have been giving	(to) have been given

Gerund

Imperfect	giving	being given
Perfect	having given	having been given.

238. Uses of the Gerund.—The infinitive in *ing*, or *gerund*, is used chiefly as subject of a verb or as object of a verb or of a preposition; thus,

Reading good stories is profitable;
The boys enjoyed *working* on the farm;
I am thinking of *rising* early to-morrow.

But we find it used also in other constructions of the noun; for example:

Seeing is *believing*; (*predicate nominative*).

Further *travelling* being impossible, we prepared our camp for the night; (*nominative absolute*).

It is not worth the *asking*; (*adverbial objective*).

NOTE:—In the sentences,

He went out *sketching*;

He was busy *ploughing*;

the words *sketching* and *ploughing* are adverbs. Infinitives in this construction were formerly governed by prepositions, (Compare the sentence, "I go *a-fishing*"); but the prepositions have disappeared, leaving the infinitives in an adverbial relation.

239. Uses of the Root Infinitive and the Gerundial Infinitive.—The root infinitive and the gerundial infinitive are also used in the various constructions of the noun; for example:

To give is better than *to receive*; (*subjective*)

I would like *to go* with you; (*objective*)

He was about *to depart*; He does nothing except *study*. (*object of a preposition*)

NOTE:—(a) We have already considered the construction in which the pronoun *it* is used as representative subject or object standing in place of an infinitive which is real subject or object (139).

(b) The prepositions *about*, *except*, and *but* are the only ones which take a root infinitive or a gerundial infinitive as object. In older English *for* was frequently used to govern a gerundial infinitive; thus,

What went ye out for to see?

But this construction is considered a vulgarism in Modern English, and is not used by good writers and speakers.

Further Uses. The infinitive, with and without the sign *to*, has, however, a number of other uses which require special mention:

(a) In sentences such as,

I haven't a coat *to wear*;

Here we obtained bread *to eat* and water *to drink*,

the infinitives are used as **adjectives**.

(b) In sentences such as,

Fools who came *to scoff* remained *to pray*;

To add to our discomfort, the rain began *to fall*;

the infinitives are used as **adverbs of purpose** and of **result** respectively.

In sentences such as,

He is anxious *to meet* you;

They failed *to reach* home in time:

the sign *to* still retains something of its original prepositional value, and the infinitives *to meet* and *to reach* are equivalent to some such phrases as *for meeting* and *in reaching*. We may then consider them as also adverbial in value.

(c) In the sentence,

We saw him *depart*;

the object of *saw* is *him depart*, and the infinitive *départ* completes the verb *saw* and relates to *him* as its subject; and in the sentence,

He seems *to know* the way;

the infinitive *to know* completes the verb *seems* and relates to *he* as its subject. In the first sentence the verb *saw* is said to be completed by **the objective with the infinitive**, and in the second sentence *He* and *to know* may be described as **the nominative with the infinitive**

NOTE:—This construction shades into that in which the infinitive may be regarded as a predicate adjective, as in the following:

You are *to blame*;

This house is *to let*.

(d) As we have already pointed out, the words *will*, *shall*, *should*, *would*, *may*, and *might*, originally were used as principal verbs. Thus,

You *will see* him to-morrow;

originally meant,

You *will* (or determine) *to see* him to-morrow;

and the infinitive *see* was object of the verb *will*. In some of their uses these verbs still retain much of their original meaning, and the infinitive still stands in the relation of object; thus,

He *may leave* home if he wishes;

Thou *shalt not kill*;

I *would do* it but I dare not.

The uses of these words as principal verbs shade off, however, into those in which they are mere auxiliaries with an infinitive for completion; thus,

Shall I see you to-morrow?

He *will come* to-morrow I *should say*;

They were afraid that they *might be* late.

EXERCISE 97

Parse the infinitives in the following sentences:

1. *To talk* with great men is a liberal education.
2. Music hath charms *to soothe* the savage breast.
3. A sower went forth *to sow*.
4. Bid me *to weep* and I will weep while I have eyes *to see*.
5. If you have tears prepare *to shed* them now.
6. Fools who came *to scoff* remained to pray.
7. The day rose fresh and fair and we had nothing *to do* but *enjoy* it.
8. To be carnally minded is death; but *to be spiritually minded* is life and peace.
9. The clock ticks upon the mantel, *to remind* us how ceaselessly the stream of time flows on.
10. Shall there be a God *to swear by* and none *to pray to*?
11. Fair daffodils, we weep *to see* you *haste* away so soon.
12. *To travel* hopefully is a better thing than *to arrive*, and the true success is *to labour*.
13. Here will we *sit* and let the sound of music *creep* into our ears.
14. It is more glorious *to reign* in peace than *to die* in war.
15. A jest loses its point when he who makes it is the first *to laugh*.
16. I see the lights of the village *gleam* through the rain and mist.
17. It is better *to be* a king and die than *to live* and be a prince.
18. Never *to tire*, never to grow cold, to be patient, sympathetic, tender, to look for the budding flower and the opening heart, like God to love always,—this is duty.

XII. THE PARTICIPLE

240. Function of the Participle.—The person who *gives* or who *goes*, is described as a *giving* or a *going*, person, and what he gives, as a *given* thing, and we speak of things as *gone*, as in the expression, “joys gone for ever.” Here *giving*, *going*, *given*, and *gone* modify nouns, while at the same time they express what the verbs *go* and *give* predicate in corresponding assertive sentences; that is, while they have the function of adjectives they share, at the same time, the nature of verbs. They are accordingly known as **participles**. (*Participle* means “participating” or “sharing.”) The participle is thus a species of verbal adjective; it expresses in the adjective form that which the verb asserts.

NOTE:—(1) The participle is adjectival in that it modifies a noun; but it does not express quality and, therefore, has no degrees of comparison. Like the infinitive it is verbal in that it expresses action or state, and involves the idea of time; but it differs from a finite verb in that it does not make an assertion and does not express tense, mood, number, and person.

(2) In the literal sense of the term the participle is an *infinitive*, since it is “unlimited” in its application; on the other hand, the infinitive is, literally speaking, also a *participle*, since it is a “partaking” word. As grammatical terms, however, each word has a limited application, as described above.

241. Imperfect and Perfect Participles.—There are two simple participles:

(1) One ends in *-ing*, as *giving*, *going*. This is called the **imperfect participle**, as it expresses an incomplete action or state of the person or thing represented by the noun it modifies.

(2) The other has a variety of endings, *-d*, *-t*, *-en*, *-n*, or *-ne*, as, *loved*, *crept*, *broken*, *torn*, or *gone*. It is called the **perfect participle**, as it expresses a completed action or state of that which its noun represents.

242. Participial Phrases.—Besides the simple forms of the participle there are several phrasal forms which are included in the following table:

	Ordinary	Progressive	Passive
Imperfect	giving		(being) given
Perfect	given	having been	having been
	having given	giving	given.

243. Uses of the Participle.—The simple participles are used in the various constructions of the adjective:

(1) **Attributive** (183): thus,

A rolling stone gathers no moss;

Heard melodies are sweet, but those unheard are sweeter.

NOTE:—(a) The verbal force of participles which stand in the attributive relation is generally more or less weakened; and the attributive participle shades off into the pure adjective. For example, the italicized words in the following have lost all their verbal force and are to be considered as adjectives:

a drunken soldier; *a broken* pitcher; *a burnt* match;

a charming lady; *an interesting* story; *a mincing* gait.

(b) If we compare the forms in *ing* in the expressions,

the *breaking* waves; the *falling* rain; the *fishing* season; a *building* permit;

we notice a distinction between the function of *breaking* and *falling*, on the one hand, and *fishing* and *building*, on the other. *The fishing season* means "the season for fishing" and *a building permit* means "a permit for building." *Fishing* and *building*, as here used, are in reality not participles, but *gerunds* used as adjectives. *Breaking* and *falling*, on the other hand, are participles.

(2) **Appositive** (184): thus,

"A stranger, I," the huntsman said,

Advancing from the hazel shade;

Venice sate in state, *throned* on her hundred isles.

(3) **Predicate** (185): Simple predicate; thus,

He remained *standing*.

Adverbial predicate; thus,

The school-boys ran *shouting* down the street.

Objective predicate; thus,

He set us all *laughing*;

He made his influence *felt*.

EXERCISE 98

Explain the relation of each of the participles in the following sentences:

1. A penny saved is a penny *earned*.
2. *Dreaming* as he went along he fell into the brook.
3. The wretched parents all that night went *shouting* far and wide.
4. He hears his daughter's voice *singing* in the village choir.
5. *Announced* by all the trumpets of the sky, arrives the snow.
6. *Watching* their leader's beck and will,
All silent there they stood and still;
Like the loose crags whose *threatening* mass
Lay *tottering* o'er the hollow pass.
7. I heard the ripple *washing* in the reeds
And the wild water *lapping* on the crag.
8. On a mountain, *stretched* beneath a hoary willow,
Lay a shepherd swain and viewed the *rolling* billow.
9. The men stood speechless, *hearing* a voice but seeing no man.
10. Ring out, wild bells, to the wild sky,
The *flying* cloud, the frosty night,
The year is *dying* in the night;
Ring out, wild bells, and let him die.

EXERCISE 99

Parse the italicized words in the following sentences:

1. Fools rush in where angels fear *to tread*.
2. *Lending* is not always *befriending*.
3. It is impossible *to make* an omelet without *breaking* eggs.
4. *To be prepared* for war is one of the most effectual means of *preserving* peace.
5. They considered themselves fortunate in *making* the children happy and in rendering the *despairing* hopeful.
6. True ease in *writing* comes from art, not chance;
As those move easiest who have learned *to dance*.

7. In vain we call old notions fudge,
And bend our conscience to our *dealing*;
The ten commandments will not budge,
And stealing will continue *stealing*.
8. The *neighbouring* ruins, too, are as picturesque as those
of Italy; and my desire of *standing* in the Coliseum and
of seeing the *shattered* arches of the Aqueducts *stretching*
along the Campagna and melting into the Alban Mount,
is entirely *quenched*.
9. If it be a sin *to covet* honour,
I am the most *offending* soul alive.
10. The school-boy *wandering* through the wood
To pull the primrose gay,
Starts, the new voice of spring *to hear*,
And imitates thy lay.
11. Thee, chauntress! oft the woods among,
I woo, *to hear* thy even song;
And, *missing* thee, I walk unseen
On the dry, smooth-shaven green,
To behold the wandering moon,
Riding near her highest noon,
Like one that hath been *led* astray
Through the heaven's wide pathless way;
And oft, as if her head she bowed,
Stooping through a fleecy cloud.
12. At such a season it is hard *to stay* at home. The streets
all seem *to lead* into the country and one longs *to follow*
their *leading*, out into the highway, on into the *winding*
lane, on into the wood road, on and on, until one comes
to that mysterious and delightful *ending*, told of in the
familiar saying, where the road finally dwindles into a
squirrel track and runs up a tree.

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244. Forms in *ing*.—As forms in *ing* may have different functions they must be carefully distinguished. The following examples illustrate the differences:

- (1) Noun; My *warning* was not heeded;
- (2) Gerund; *Warning* him is of little avail;

- (3) Adjective; A *warning* voice the shepherd hears;
 (4) Participle; He received a letter *warning* him of his danger.

EXERCISE 100

State the part of speech of each of the italicized words in the following sentences:

1. *Forgetting* is easier than learning.
2. Sorrowing, toiling, *rejoicing*,
Onward through life he goes.
3. We never see the sunrise by *looking* into the west.
4. From *everlasting* to everlasting Thou art God.
5. Isaac Walton wrote a *charming* book about *fishing*.
6. *Listening* to thy murmur he shall dream
He hears the *rustling* leaf and running stream.
7. He that loses his conscience has nothing left that is worth *keeping*.
8. He spoke of the grass, and flowers, and trees,
Of the *singing* birds, and the humming bees;
Then talked of the *haying*, and wonder'd whether
The cloud in the west would bring foul weather.
9. Men use care in *purchasing* a horse, but are negligent in *choosing* a friend.
10. A hobby is the best thing in the world for a man with a serious vocation. It keeps him from *getting* muscle-bound in his own task. It helps to save him from the mistake of *supposing* that it is his little tick-tack that keeps the universe *agoing*. It leads him out on off days away from his own garden corner into curious and *interesting* regions of this wide and various universe, of which, after all, he is a citizen.

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XIII. AGREEMENT OF THE VERB WITH ITS SUBJECT

245. Depends Upon Meaning of Subject.—The verb is said to agree with its subject in number and person (83). It is, however, the meaning of the subject rather than its form that determines the number and person

of the verb. The following are some of the most important constructions illustrating this principle:

(1) Collective nouns in the singular may require a verb in the plural if we have reference to the individuals composing the collection. Thus we say,

The committee *were* considering the evidence;
This company of men *are* sailors;

but when we consider the individuals as forming one body the verb must be in the singular; thus,

The committee *presents* its report;
This company of men *is* the crew of the vessel.

And conversely the verb is singular when, although the subject is plural in form, the meaning is singular; thus,

With Thee a thousand years *is* as one day.

(2) When two or more singular subjects are taken alternately, or when the things which they represent are considered separately, the verb is in the singular; thus,

Neither the one nor the other *appears* to have understood;
Every man, woman, and child *has* received a share.

(3) When two or more singular subjects are taken together to represent but one notion, the verb is in the singular; thus,

Bread and water *is* prison fare;
Why *is* dust and ashes proud?

(4) When there are several subjects, the verb frequently agrees with the singular subject which stands next to it; thus,

Ah! then and there *was* hurrying to and fro,
And gathering tears and tremblings of distress;
Her knights, her dames, her court *is* there.

And when the verb *precedes* a number of subjects the singular form is frequently used; thus,

Thine *is* the kingdom, the power, and the glory.

EXERCISE 101

Account for the number of each of the italicized verbs in the following sentences:

1. Honesty and justice *are* virtues.
2. The wages of sin *is* death.
3. Now *abideth* faith, hope, and charity.
4. Thou reignest over all, and in Thine hand *is* power and might.
5. Education, not talent, *has* made him what he is.
6. The youth of a people *are* its hope.
7. Flesh and blood *hath* not revealed it unto thee.
8. In that part of the country the peasantry *live* on oatmeal.
9. To seize my gun and to fire *was* the work of a moment.
10. The tumult and the shouting *dies*;
The captains and the kings *depart*.
11. Nothing but frivolous amusements *pleases* the indolent.
12. There *is* tears for his love, joy for his fortune, honour for his valour, and death for his ambition.
13. The public *have* neither shame nor gratitude.
14. Every day and every hour *has* its opportunities for good.
15. The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Awaits alike the inevitable hour,

EXERCISE 102

In each of the following sentences supply the proper form of the verb "to be":

1. Procrastination — the thief of time.
2. If I — he I would accept the offer.
3. The United States — now rapidly increasing in population.
4. If he — a year older, I would send him to school.
5. If thou — not immortal look about thee.
6. If gold — more abundant it would be of less value.
7. I knew that it — more than three hundred miles from Montreal to Toronto.

8. Two thousand dollars a year — a good salary.
9. If she — going I wish she would call for me.
10. Neither the servants nor their master — to blame.

XIV. OTHER VERB FORMS

246. (1) **Words Ordinarily Other Parts of Speech.**— Words ordinarily used as other parts of speech are sometimes used as verbs; thus,

If thou *thou'st* him some thrice it shall not be amiss;
He *ages* fast; The fire *dries* the room.

(2) **Phrases.**— Besides the regular verb phrases already considered, there are in English a number of phrases composed of verbs with modifying words loosely attached to them in various ways; for example:

The vessel *set sail*; He *falls in* with my views; They *made away* with their victim; He *as much as said* he would come.

EXERCISE 103

Comment upon the italicized verb forms in each of the following sentences:

1. Thou *wast* not born for death, immortal bird.
2. What went ye out *for to see*?
3. He that is soon angry *dealeth* foolishly.
4. He has been caught *stealing*.
5. *Methought* I heard a voice cry, "Sleep no more!"
6. I *wis* in all the Senate there was no heart so bold.
7. Woe *worth* the chase, woe worth the day
That cost thy life, my gallant gray.
8. It is no use *writing*; you must telegraph.
9. Wheat *sells* at a dollar a bushel.
10. While the ceremony *was performing*, on this spot a new and strange tragedy *was enacting*.
11. *Please* state your reasons fully.
12. And Sir Richard said again,
"We *be* all good Englishmen."

247. **Method of Parsing.**—In parsing a verb it is usual to classify it according to form and function, and to state the tense, mood, person and number, and relation. In parsing verb phrases it is generally sufficient to state the kind and relation.

The following abbreviations may be used:

Conjugation—Conjug.	Indicative—Indic.
Transitive—Trans.	Subjunctive—Subj.
Intransitive—Intrans.	Imperative—Imper.
Present—Pres.	Conditional—Cond.
Perfect—Perf.	Passive—Pass.
Progressive—Prog.	Infinitive—Infin.
Promissive—Prom.	Participle—Partic.

Example.—Whatever record *leap* to light, he never *shall be shamed*.

Leap—Verb, New Conjug., Intrans., Pres. Tense, Subj. Mood, 3rd Sing., Agr. with its Subj. *record*.

Shall be shamed—Verb phrase, Prom., Future, Pass., 3rd Sing., Agr. with its Subj. *he*.

GENERAL EXERCISE

Parse the italicized words, and groups of words, in the following sentences:

A

1. The packet *sails* from New York to-morrow.
2. Thy voice *is heard* through rolling drums,
That beat to battle where he stands.
3. To every man upon this earth, death *cometh* soon or late.
4. Ill deeds *are doubled* with an evil word.
5. In order *to win* the match we *had* still *to make* seven runs.
6. The eagle *was soaring* in the blue sky overhead.
7. If thy brother *trespass* against thee, rebuke him, and if he repent, *forgive* him.
8. *Travelling* after fortune is not the way *to secure* her.

9. The temptation *to bolster* up a *falling* cause by *damaging* your adversary's character is all the stronger, because the device may so easily succeed.
10. Wear your *learning* like your watch, in a private pocket; and *do not pull* it out and strike it merely *to show* that you have one. If you *are asked* what o'clock it is, tell it, but *do not proclaim* it hourly and unasked, like the watchman.

B

1. Love not sleep, lest thou *come* to poverty.
2. The robin and the wren *are flown*.
3. Art *may make* a suit of clothes, but nature must produce a man.
4. *Getting* money is not all a man's business; *to cultivate* kindness is a valuable part of the business of life.
5. Let him go *feed* upon the public ways.
6. By Friday they *will have been working* four days.
7. Nothing clears up a case so much as *stating* it to another person.
8. I *have done* the deed. *Did'st* thou not *hear* a noise?
9. Here will I stand, till Cæsar *pass* along,
And as a suitor *will* I *give* him this.
10. England, with all thy faults I love thee still,—
My country! and while yet a nook is left
Where English minds and manners *may be found*,
Shall be constrain'd to love thee. Though thy clime
Be fickle, and thy year most part deform'd
With *dripping* rains, or *wither'd* by a frost,
I *would* not yet *exchange* thy sullen skies,
And fields without a flower, for warmer France
With all her vines.

CHAPTER X

THE ADVERB

I. CLASSES

248. Classification According to Meaning.—Adverbs in English are innumerable, and of the most various meaning. We may divide them roughly into the following classes, but the same word may be an adverb of one or another class, in different meanings and connections: Adverbs of,

1. **Place**; as, *here, yonder, thither, up*.
2. **Time**; as, *now, formerly, next, first*.
3. **Manner**; as, *so, somehow, ill, foolishly*.
4. **Degree**; as, *little, more, scarcely, enough*.

5. To the foregoing we add **Modal** adverbs; such as show the mode in which the thought is conceived by the speaker, the relation of one thought to another, and so on; thus,

- (1) **Affirmative**; as, *surely, certainly, indeed*.
- (2) **Negative**; as, *not, never*.
- (3) **Potential**; as, *perhaps, possibly, probably*.
- (4) **Causal**; as, *hence, therefore, accordingly*.

Adverbs used in asking questions; as, *when, where, whence, how, why, wherefore*, are called **interrogative**, and are themselves classed as interrogative adverbs of time, place, manner, and so on.

Like the interrogative pronouns, these adverbs, especially *how*, are used in exclamatory sentences; thus,

How kind of you to take this trouble!

How often have I warned you to be carefull

249. Comparison of Adverbs.—Most adverbs expressing manner and quality, as well as a few adverbs belonging to other classes, have comparative and superlative forms, and the rules for forming the comparative and the superlative are the same for adverbs as for adjectives (164).

A few adverbs are compared by the addition of *er*, and *est*; thus,

soon	sooner	soonest
near	nearer	nearest.

For most adverbs, however, phrasal comparison is used; thus,

quickly	more quickly	most quickly.
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EXERCISE 104

Classify the adverbs in the following sentences and state the relation of each:

1. Ill weeds grow *apace*.
2. To-morrow will *never* be *here*.
3. A little fire is *quickly* trodden out.
4. *When* does the concert begin?
5. He was *rarely* heard to speak.
6. You are *very* foolish to act *thus*.
7. He is *not nearly so* black as he is painted.
8. Stay *yet awhile*; speak to me *once again*.
9. We will proceed *no further* in this business.
10. He spoke *quite* clearly, though *somewhat rapidly*.
11. Opportunities *never* nibble *twice* at the same hook.
12. The curtains of yesterday drop *down*;
The curtains of to-morrow roll *up*.

II. SENTENCE ADVERBS

250. Sentence Adverbs.—Some modal adverbs modify whole sentences, and may be called sentence adverbs; thus,

Perhaps he has gone; *Probably* he is here.

But the fact that, in the first example, the same meaning may be expressed by a change in the predicate; thus, "He *may have gone*"; shows that such adverbs belong especially to the verb. They modify primarily the copula, which expresses the act of assertion; they thus characterize the reliability of the whole assertion—whether it is certain, probable, or doubtful. So, too, with phrases; thus,

Without doubt he has gone;
To the best of my belief, he has gone.

When one of the components of the sentence is stressed, these modal adverbs are often placed near it, and seem to belong to it; but they are still sentence adverbs; thus,

Probably *he* rode home (or, he *rode* home; or, he rode *home*);
He probably *rode* home; He rode *home*, probably.

Again, as is shown by the sentence, "Maybe he has gone"; (in which the phrasal compound *Maybe* is shortened for "It may be"), some sentences, independent in form and often parenthetical, are logically modal; thus,

He has gone, *I fear*; He has gone, *I have no doubt*;
He is, *I think*, mistaken.

Phrases and clauses like those italicized in the following sentences, are of similar construction:

Properly speaking, there is no such thing as chance;
That is he yonder, *if I am not mistaken*.

EXERCISE 105

State the function and relation of each of the italicized words, or groups of words, in the following sentences:

1. The witness *certainly* spoke the truth.
2. *Possibly* he has been delayed.
3. A fool at forty is a fool *indeed*.
4. *Surely* goodness and mercy shall follow me all the days of my life.

5. Not a word will he disclose,
 Not a word of all he knows.
6. In this part of the town there was *literally* nothing to be seen but lamps.
7. "*Perhaps*," cried he, "there may be such monsters as you describe."
8. *Apparently* the storm had only begun.
9. He who judges least, *I think*, is he who judges best.
10. You are, *to speak very frankly*, not entirely free from blame.

III. PECULIAR CONSTRUCTIONS

251. (a) Adverbs Modifying Prepositions.—Many prepositions and conjunctions are adverbial in origin and still retain some of their adverbial value when used as connectives. Consider, for example, the uses of *up* and *before* in the following sentences:

He ran *up*;
 He ran *up* the hill;
 They came *before*;
 They came *before* I went (273 [3]).

The adverbial origin of prepositions and conjunctions accounts for the fact that they are sometimes modified by adverbs, as in the sentences,

He jumped *clear* over the wall;
 He came *long* after I had gone.

In the first sentence the word *over*, in addition to its function in relating *wall* to *jumped*, retains also sufficient of the adverbial function to permit of its being modified by the adverb *clear*. The case of *long after*, in the second sentence, is similar. But as in such constructions the adverbs logically modify the whole phrase they may be so described properly enough.

252. (b) **Adverbs Modifying Nouns.**—Sometimes, also, adverbs seem to modify nouns; but when the adverbs have not become converted into adjectives, they really express a modification of the verbal notion either of action or of state or existence, which many nouns suggest; thus, for example:

After my return (action) *home* yesterday;
We recall our misfortunes (state) *heretofore*;
He came during my residence *here*.

But these constructions shade off into those in which the modifying word must be considered as purely adjectival in function. And furthermore, words which in addition to their function as nouns have also an adjective function in the sentence, may also be modified by adverbs; thus,

So sweet that joy is *almost* pain; (Pred. Nom.)
Gladstone, *formerly* premier of England. (Appos.)

EXERCISE 106

State the relation of each of the italicized adverbs in the following sentences:

1. I am not *half* through my task.
2. He struck the target *full* in the centre.
3. The music in my heart I bore
Long after it was heard no more.
4. Champlain at last arrived at Montreal, *then* a mere collection of huts.
5. The boat came *close* beneath the ship,
And *straight* a sound was heard.
6. I have not seen him since his journey *abroad*.
7. On she came with cloud of canvas,
Right against the wind that blew.
8. Upon his arrival *here* he was met by a large crowd.
9. They locked the door *shortly* before the thieves came.
10. The next man to enter was an old sea captain, *once* a prisoner of the French.

IV. ADVERBIAL PARTICLES

253. (a) **Simple Adverbial Particles.**—In the sentences,

They gave *away* their wealth;
He tore *down* the fence;

the words *away* and *down* are **adverbial particles** (39) modifying the verbs *gave* and *tore* respectively. This will be readily seen when we write the sentences as follows:

They gave their wealth *away*;
He tore the fence *down*.

It is evident, furthermore, that in the sentences,

I longed *for* his return;
He arrives *in* a carriage;

the words *for* and *in* are different in function. Although we usually parse *for* in this construction as a preposition, it is in reality an adverbial particle helping to make the phrase *longed for*, which has for its object the noun *return*. *In*, on the other hand, is a pure preposition.

When sentences containing phrases which consist of a verb and an adverbial particle, are changed from the active into the passive, the adverbial particle becomes a part of the passive verb phrase; thus,

Active—

The people *sought after* him;
His friends *think highly of* him.

Passive—

He *was sought after* by the people;
He *is thought highly of*, by his friends.

254. (b) **Expletive Particle.**—*There* is peculiarly used when it fills up what seems to be a gap in the sentence owing to the transposition of the subject (38); thus, for example,

There is no death; what seems so, is transition;
There being no one at home I went away.

When thus used, *there* is called an **expletive particle**. (*Expletive* means "filling out".)

It is necessary to distinguish carefully the use of *there* as an expletive from its use as an adverb of place. The following sentences contain examples of both uses:

There are no idlers *there*;

As no one else was *there*, *there* was no use in my remaining.

EXERCISE 107

State whether the word "there" is used as an adverb of place or as an expletive in each of the following sentences:

1. Where there's a will there's a way.
2. There is the house in which he lives.
3. There's a great contrast between him and me.
4. Act well your part; there all the honour lies.
5. Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also.
6. There lived an ancient legend in our house.
7. There was no land on earth she loved like that dear land.
8. O to be in England, now that April's there.
9. There is a tide in the affairs of men which, taken at its flood, leads on to fortune.
10. Is there no balm in Gilead? Is there no physician there?

255. (c) Limiting Particles.—A few words, ordinarily adverbs, are peculiarly used (39). *Even*, for example, may be used in connection with a word or a phrase to emphasize the identity; thus, for example,

It is *even* she I mean;

Sweet thoughts do *even* refresh my labours;

or it may intimate that the sentence expresses an extreme case of a general proposition; being, in this use, placed before or after the word, phrase, or clause, on which the extreme character of the statement or supposition depends; thus, for example:

Even this stupid man is more useful than I am;

I would not do so *even* if you were to threaten me;

The gain is *even* more remarkable than the loss.

Thus used, *even* is not one of the so-called parts of speech; for, although it resembles the adjective and especially the adverb, it is, as the above examples show, more general in its application. It seems to change, somewhat as does stress, the value of the expression with which it is connected. Accordingly, it may, from its origin, be described as a **limiting particle** modifying the expression to which it is attached; and, in the case of *even* and words of similar value, the name **intensifying** may be added.

A few other words, expressing degree, as *only*, *merely*, *just*, *nearly*, *almost*, are sometimes used in ways that resemble those of *even* above, and they are to be described in the same way; thus, for example:

He waited *only* a moment.

Such constructions shade off into those in which some of these words may be valued as adjectives or adverbs.

EXERCISE 108

Parse the italicized words in the following sentences:

A

1. *Even* Homer sometimes nods.
2. *Just* for a handful of silver he left us.
3. Drink to me *only* with thine eyes,
And I will pledge with mine.
4. You must not think too unkindly *even* of the east wind.
5. The tongue is *but* a little member, yet behold how great a fire it kindles.
6. Every fish has its fly, but *even* the right fly is not enough;
you must play it nicely at the right spot.
7. *Only* the actions of the just
Smell sweet and blossom in their dust.
8. All the world's a stage, and all the men and women
merely players.

B

1. He paid *about* ten thousand dollars for his house.
2. Tale-bearers are *just* as bad as tale-makers.
3. The pond widened out into *quite* a lake.
4. Solitude is a thing which a man *hardly* ever enjoys by himself.
5. Not *wholly* in the busy world, nor *quite* beyond it, blooms the garden that I love.
6. It was not *exactly* what one would call an elegant equipage, but it rolled along.
7. We spent *over* a hundred dollars yesterday.
8. This mistake is *altogether* my fault.

256. (d) **Responsives.**—The words *yes* and *no* are used in responding to a question and are, therefore, called **responsives** (affirmative and negative) (42). They were originally adverbs, but are so no longer, because they are in themselves complete answers. Thus, for example, in answer to the question “Will you go?” *yes* and *no* mean respectively, “I will go,” and “I will not go.” The responsives thus stand for a whole sentence, and hence are not properly “parts of speech” in the ordinary use of the term. The older forms of *yes* and *no* are *yea* and *nay*.

NOTE:—(1) We sometimes use the responsive merely to emphasize an affirmation or a denial, as in the following:

Were you at the concert? *Yes*, I was there;

Are you going to the carnival? *No*, I am not going.

(2) *Ay* meaning *yes* is also used as a responsive. It is a shortened form of the word *aye* meaning “ever”.

V. THE FORM OF ADVERBS

257. **Derivation.**—Many adverbs are formed from adjectives or nouns by the addition of a prefix or a suffix; thus,

betimes, anew, lengthwise, darkling, hastily.

A number of words, however, are used either as adjectives or as adverbs without change of form; thus,

They strike *hard*; We sleep *sound*; It grew wondrous *cold*.

The following series of adverbs corresponding to one another come from pronominal roots:

here	hither	hence;	then	the	thus;
there	thither	thence;	when	why	how.
where	whither	whence;			

NOTE:—As the forms *hence*, *thence*, and *whence* mean, respectively, *from here*, *from there*, *from where*, it is obviously incorrect to say *from hence*, *from thence*, *from whence*.

The adverbs *here*, *there*, and *where*, are combined with many words which are now usually prepositions, forming compounds which are equivalent to *it*, *this*, *that*, *which*, or *what*, along with the preposition; thus,

Herein (=“in this”) lies the difficulty;
In the day thou eatest *thereof* (=“of it”);
The means *whereby* (=“by which”) I live.

258. Adverbs of Peculiar Derivation.—A number of adverbs of peculiar derivation require special notice:

(a) *Needs*, as used in the sentence “He *needs* must go”; means “of necessity,” and is the possessive form of the noun *need*, the apostrophe being omitted.

NOTE:—In Old English, as in other inflected languages, the possessive case was frequently used to express adverbial as well as adjectival relations. These relations are generally expressed in Modern English by means of the preposition *of*; thus,

He often comes in of an evening;
He went of his own free will.

(b) *The* as used in, “The more the merrier”; is an adverb of degree. It means *by that much*, and is a survival of an Old English case form of the pronoun *that*, which has not survived elsewhere in Modern English.

(c) Expressions such as *day by day*, *time after time*, must be treated as adverbial phrases. *Day by day*, in the sentence, "Day by day he grew stronger"; is equivalent to *by day by day*. The phrase *by day* is repeated to express repeated or continued action. The dropping of the preposition *by* in the first phrase has given us the expression in its present form.

(d) In the expression *ever and anon*, *anon* is a contraction for *in one* (moment). In the sentence, "Ever and anon we heard the tolling of the bell"; *ever and anon* expresses the fact that the action is continued, or repeated, at intervals.

Other phrasal expressions which are used as adverbs are, *to and fro* (=to and from), *every now and then*, *every once in a while*.

(e) *Ago* in the sentence, "He came an hour ago"; is an abbreviated form of the participle *agone*, which was in use in older English. *Ago* rarely retains anything of its participial value, however, and is to be considered merely as an adverb of time.

(f) *Rather*, which is now used as an adverb expressing preference, is the comparative form of *rathe* meaning "early," which was used as an adjective in older English. Milton speaks of "the *rathe* primrose," but the word is now obsolete. It is interesting to notice that the words *soon* and *sooner* are also similarly used in Modern English to express preference, as well as time; thus,

I would as soon go as stay;

He would sooner starve than beg.

EXERCISE 109

Parse the italicized words in the following sentences. Explain any peculiarities of form or derivation:

A

1. "Ay, Ay, Sir," burst from a thousand throats.
2. He must *needs* go that the devil drives.
3. Words are pegs to hang ideas *on*.
4. *Whence* do you come, and *whither* are you bound?
5. *Herein* do I exercise myself to have a conscience void of offence.
6. *Morning after morning* he passed at the same hour.
7. I know a bank *whereon* the wild thyme blows.
8. The higher you go *the* colder it gets.
9. Fools must *now and then* be right by chance.
10. Men knew now how he learned *at all*,
 For idly, *hour by hour*,
 He sat and watched the dead leaves fall,
 Or mused upon some common flower.

B

1. I'd *rather* be a dog and bay the moon than such a Roman.
2. We met him a few days *ago*.
3. *The* higher a man rises the *farther* he can fall.
4. *Every once in a while* we heard the rumbling of distant thunder.
5. I would *sooner* die than reveal my secret.
6. *Day in and day out*, the faithful dog guarded the grave of his master.
7. *Once upon a time* there lived a very rich man, whose name was Midas.
8. The accident happened so long *ago* that I have *almost* forgotten it.
9. The eyes of the Lord run *to and fro* throughout the whole earth.
10. *Ever and anon* the wind,
 Sweet-scented with the hay,
 Turned o'er the hymn-book's fluttering leaves,
 That on the window lay.

(g) Words which are generally used as other parts of speech, are sometimes used as adverbs; thus, for example:

Truth administered *scalding* (Part.) hot repels;
 He is *somewhat* (Pron.) arrogant in manner;
Tramp, tramp, across the land they speed,
Splash, splash, across the sea.

And on account of their demonstrative character we find *this* and *that* used as adverbs, often in colloquial use, and sometimes even in literature. Examples are:

that high, this far, that much.

(h) We have already observed the fact that adverbs may take the form of either phrases or clauses; thus,

He lives *in India*;
 Upon entering we were met *by a servant*;
Spring having come, the flowers are in bloom;
 He shouted *till the woods rang*.

Adverb phrases, however, are sometimes not easily analysed, either because they contain words that are rarely or never found except in these phrases; thus,

by stealth, of yore, at random, in lieu;

or because they are of irregular construction, being made up of a preposition with an object which is ordinarily an adjective; thus,

in vain, of old, at all, on high, ere long, for good.

EXERCISE 110

Parse the italicized adverbs in the following sentences, noting any peculiarities in derivation or function:

1. A pint of water weighs a *pound*.
2. The path to the top of the hill is *somewhat* steep.
3. I would hesitate to pay *that* much for it.
4. *In sooth* I know not why I am so sad.
5. I intend to return *a little* before dark.
6. Great drops of rain fell *plop* into the water.
7. My clothes were *wringing* wet when I reached home.
8. Is this a dagger which I see before me,
The handle toward my hand?

9. *Bang, whang, whang* goes the drum.
10. Fools rush in *where angels fear to tread*.

GENERAL EXERCISE

Parse the italicized adverbs in the following sentences:

1. Most people talk *too much*.
2. The stone went *crash* through the window.
3. He *barely* escaped with his life.
4. Anger is an expensive luxury, in which *only* men of a certain income can indulge.
5. A man's best things are nearest him,
Lie *close* about his feet.
6. My father lived at Blenheim *then*,
Yon little stream *hard* by.
7. Great thoughts, great feelings, came to them,
Like instincts, *unawares*.
8. A *very* inquisitive child *once* saucily asked of an *exceedingly* needy-looking man, "*Where do you most generally dine*?" *Immediately* the all but *actually* starving man replied, *somewhat* sadly, though *quite smartly*, withal, "*Near anything I may get to eat.*"
9. Croker had a *very* good opinion of himself. *Once* when he was in the company of the Duke of Wellington, the talk turned *upon the battle* of Waterloo, and Croker *actually* contradicted several of the statements made by the Duke. *Afterwards* some one spoke about the copper caps which were used *for firing* muskets, and *again* Croker put the Duke right. This upset the patience of the great soldier and he exclaimed, "*Perhaps* I know little about Waterloo, but I *certainly* know something about copper caps!"
10. One *very* dark *night* I directed on their way two young men who had been fishing in the pond. They lived *about a mile off* through the woods and were *quite* used to the route. A day or two *after*, one of them told me that they wandered *about* the greater *part* of the night, *close* by their own premises, and did *not* get *home* till toward morning.

CHAPTER XI

THE PREPOSITION

I. ORIGIN AND USE

259. Function of Prepositions.—Prepositions did not exist in the earliest stages of the development of language. The oldest prepositions were at first adverbs, often prefixed to verbs (hence the name "*preposition*"), and prepositions may in some cases be described as transitive adverbs. Gradually when case endings began to lose their force, prepositions came to be used with nouns and pronouns to define more clearly their relation in the sentence.

The relations expressed by prepositions, as used at first, were relations of place, and then, by degrees, time, cause, and manner; thus, for example, in the case of *from*:

to be *from* home; to come *from* England; to stay *from* morning till evening; to come *from* fear; to happen *from* no fault of mine.

The number of the prepositions is considerably less than a hundred; but, as we have just seen in the case of *from*, each preposition may generally express a variety of relations. We, therefore, do not attempt to classify them on the basis of meaning.

EXERCISE 111

Show whether the italicized words in the following are prepositions or adverbial particles:

1. A soft answer turneth *away* wrath.
2. Faith is the substance of things hoped *for*.
3. *Amidst* thy bowers the tyrant's hand is seen.
4. Perfect love casteth *out* fear.
5. Bring *in* the logs that are lying *in* the yard.

6. When clouds are seen wise men put *on* their cloaks.
7. I throw *up* my chamber window to breathe the earliest breath of summer.
8. It is as easy to lift *up* Olympus as it is to climb *up* Parnassus.
9. We thought as we hollowed his narrow bed
And smoothed *down* his lonely pillow,
That the foe and the stranger would tread *o'er* his head,
And we far away on the billow.
10. In the midst of this sublime and terrible storm Dame Partington, who lived upon the beach, was seen *at* the door of her house with mop and pattens, trundling her mop, squeezing *out* the sea-water, and vigorously pushing *away* the Atlantic Ocean. The Atlantic was roused; Mrs. Partington's spirit was up. But I need not tell you that the contest was unequal; the Atlantic Ocean beat Mrs. Partington.

260. Connection with Other Words.—From their nature or from usage, particular words have come to be followed by particular prepositions. Some words take prepositions that harmonize with their composition; thus, for example,

absolve *from*, conversant *with*, involve *in*, comply *with*.

Some, again, are used with particular prepositions that do not harmonize with their original meaning; thus, for example,

abhorrent *to*, averse *to*, alien *to*, connive *at*.

Other words are followed by more than one preposition, each expressing a different relation; thus, for example,

to get <i>at</i> facts;	to intrust a thing <i>to</i> one;
to get <i>over</i> a fever;	to intrust one <i>with</i> a thing;
to get <i>on</i> with a person;	to look <i>after</i> the house;
to get <i>out of</i> debt;	to look <i>at</i> a person or thing;
to get <i>to</i> a journey's end;	to look <i>into</i> a matter;
to take <i>after</i> one's father;	to look <i>for</i> what is lost;
to take one <i>for</i> a thief;	to look <i>over</i> an account;
to take <i>to</i> anything;	to look <i>through</i> an account;
to take <i>upon</i> oneself;	to look <i>out of</i> a window,

A few words, again, are used with more than one preposition to express the same, or almost the same, relation; thus, for example,

to expect *of* (or *from*) one; to die *of* (or *from*) (or *with*) hunger;
anxious *for* (or *about*) his safety.

EXERCISE 112

What preposition should be used with each of the following:

accord	confer	dispense	pertinent
adapted	confide	endue	prodigal
addicted	conductive	exclusive	relevant
adjacent	consist	exception	similar
affinity	convenient	glad	subordinate
agree	convicted	harmonize	subversive
amalgamate	dazzled	imbued	synonymous
assent	defer	incidental	taste
associated	delight	insensible	typical
averse	desist	oblivious	unworthy
beware	different	persist	zealous.

EXERCISE 113

Fill in the blanks in the following sentences with suitable prepositions:

1. To-day is always different — yesterday.
2. I think that the train will start — about an hour.
3. Your house is similar — ours.
4. He spoke — his own defence.
5. I have not been — school — the first of March.
6. The Prodigal Son was reconciled — his father.
7. None can be disappointed — seeing Niagara Falls.
8. — his loss he is very cheerful.
9. All — two men, who lived — the bridge, were saved.
10. I am not accountable — any one — my conduct.

261. Position in the Sentence.—The preposition generally precedes the noun or pronoun which it governs, but sometimes for the sake of greater euphony or greater force it follows the word which it governs; thus,

John is the name (that) he answers *to*;
I have travelled the whole world *over*.

262. Omission of the Preposition.—Sometimes when the relation of members of a sentence can be readily seen without the use of the preposition, it is omitted in order to secure greater brevity and force, or for the sake of the sound; thus,

This is the reason (that) I came (for);
I met him the day (that) he arrived (on);
He is (of) my height; (Of) what age are you?
He is busy (at) ploughing; He swims (in) dog fashion.

In the foregoing sentences, *my height*, *what age*, may be treated as adjective phrases; *ploughing* and *dog fashion* are adverbs.

II. FORMATION

263. Various Forms.—The oldest prepositions are simple, as, *at*, *by*, *for*. Most others of late formation are derivatives, or compounds, or phrases. The following are examples:

1. **Prepositions derived from participles**, originally modifying a noun in the nominative absolute; thus, for example, the sentences,

The result pending, we have felt great anxiety;
We went along the road, *the house being passed*;
All, *the boy being excepted*, reached the camp in safety
We considering the circumstances, he is not to blame;

have come to be written as follows:

Pending the result we have felt great anxiety;
We went along the road *past the house*;
All *except the boy* reached the camp in safety;
Considering the circumstances, he is not to blame.

2. **Compounds and Derivatives; thus,**

underneath, within, amongst, along.

3. **Phrases; thus,**

out of, as to, by way of, instead of, according to.

The expression *as regards*, which is shortened from *so far as it regards*, may also be valued as a preposition phrase, meaning "concerning" or "in regard to."

EXERCISE 114

Select the preposition phrases in the following sentences and show the relation of each:

1. We came by way of Montreal.
2. Out of thine own mouth will I judge thee.
3. He stood a little apart from his fellows.
4. In spite of what you say I believe he is honest.
5. The train drew up alongside of the station.
6. Don't put too fine a point to your wit for fear of its getting blunted.
7. In addition to advising us he gave us money.
8. As for me and my house we will serve the Lord.
9. The secret door was opened by means of a spring.
10. I have heard nothing but praise as regards his conduct.

III. PECULIAR USES

264. Unusual or Peculiar Constructions.—A number of prepositions are sometimes used in unusual or peculiar constructions which require special notice:

(a) In older English the preposition *for* was frequently used to govern the infinitive (239) where the preposition *to* was felt to be losing its force, as in, "It is useless *for* to go." The insertion of a pronoun after *for*, as subject of the infinitive, has given us such constructions as,

For me to die is gain; It is useless for him to go.

(b) **Save**, and **but**, meaning "except," are used as prepositions and govern the objective case. Occasionally, however, especially in older English, we find either word followed by a pronoun in the nominative case; but in Modern English this construction is not sanctioned by the best usage. Examples are:

None shall be mistress of it save I alone; (Shakespeare)
What stays have I but they? (Shakespeare)

(c) **But** is sometimes used as a preposition to govern a noun clause, a noun phrase, or an infinitive; thus,

I cannot *but* believe it; ("do anything except believe").
He was all *but* ruined; ("all except (being) ruined").
But for you I would have gone; ("except for you").

(d) **Than** is used as a subordinative conjunction, and introduces an adverbial clause. When followed by the conjunctive pronoun *whom*, however, its construction is that of a preposition with the objective case; for example:

Than whom none higher sat; (Milton)

(e) The words **nigh**, **near**, and **like**, with their derivatives, must be considered essentially as prepositions, and such expressions as *near to*, *like to*, must be considered as preposition phrases. The function of these words has, however, already been discussed.

NOTE:—Some authorities prefer to treat *near* as an adverb and *like* as an adjective. In such sentences as,

He lives near (to) the bridge;

We heard a sound like (to) thunder;

the expressions (to) *the bridge*, (to) *thunder*, must then be considered as adverbs, modifying *near*, and *like*, respectively. However, as *near* and *like* have in some of their uses lost most of their adverbial or adjectival force, it is simpler to treat them as prepositions.

In vulgar English *like* is often used as a conjunction; thus, "He walked *like* I do"; but this construction is not reputable, and we have the word *as* to express this relation. In "He walked *like* John," *like* cannot be a conjunction, as we see when we substitute for *John* the pronoun of the third person.

EXERCISE 115

Parse the italicized words in the following sentences, noting any peculiarities of function:

1. He was *about* to speak.
2. He sold it *for* what it was worth.
3. I did not see him *till* toward morning.
4. Alas *for* the rarity of Christian charity under the sun!
5. Who is he that cometh *like* an honoured guest?
6. A man is never so much on trial as *in* the moment of excessive good fortune.
7. I don't know what you are talking *about*.
8. She does nothing *but* dance all day long.
9. The building *next* the city hall is the post office.
10. A man *without* self-restraint is *like* a barrel without hoops, and tumbles to pieces.
11. All *save* three of the crew were drowned.
12. *Re* (=regarding) your proposal of last week I beg to reply as follows.

CHAPTER XII

THE CONJUNCTION

I. FORMATION

265. From Other Parts of Speech.—Conjunctions have been formed in various ways, mostly from other parts of speech; thus, for example, from,

pronouns:	that, hence, whether, both;
adjectives:	provided, except;
adverbs:	consequently, lastly, now, namely;
prepositions:	but, for, since, before;
verbs:	say, suppose, to wit, videlicet (viz).

Many of the words which are used as conjunctions may also be used either as adverbs or as prepositions; only a few words, indeed, are used solely as conjunctions, as *and*, *nor*. Some words also which are ordinarily participles or imperatives, are now used as conjunctions, especially by the omission of *that*, which once followed them. In Modern English, this use of *that* has disappeared except in a few conjunction phrases, as, *in that*, *save that*, *but that*.

NOTE:—In Shakespeare we still find *that* used along with such conjunctions as *if* and *when*, in order to strengthen their conjunctive value; thus,

When that the poor have cried Cæsar hath wept;

If that the youth of my new interest here have power to bid you welcome.

II. CLASSES.—ORDINARY AND ADVERBIAL

266. Difference in Function.—As we have already seen (50; 54) conjunctions may be divided according to function into two main classes, *co-ordinative* and *subordinative*. Co-ordinative conjunctions join expressions of equal rank, whether clauses, phrases, or single words.

Subordinative conjunctions join subordinate clauses to principal clauses.

Both co-ordinative and subordinative conjunctions may be classified as **ordinary** or **adverbial**. Ordinary conjunctions merely connect clauses, phrases, or words, and show their relations; adverbial conjunctions not only connect clauses but modify either the whole clause which they introduce, or some part of it; thus, for example, in,

I stay *and* he goes; I stay *if* he goes;

and and *if* are ordinary conjunctions; but, in,

I stay; *therefore* he goes; I stay *when* he goes;

therefore and *when* are adverbial conjunctions.

III. CO-ORDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

267. Classification.—Besides their classification as ordinary and adverbial, both co-ordinative and subordinative conjunctions may be classified according to the relations which they express. The different kinds of co-ordination have already been described (50) and the co-ordinative conjunctions may be classified as follows:

1. **Copulative:** *and, moreover, furthermore, now, as well as.*

These conjunctions are called **copulative** because they are used to couple or unite words, or groups of words, which are used in the same line of thought; thus,

The people are like the sea *and* orators are like the wind.

2. **Adversative:** *but, yet, still, however, whereas, notwithstanding, nevertheless.*

These conjunctions are called **adversative** because the thoughts expressed by the words, or groups of words, which they connect are adverse or opposite in character; thus,

Prosperity makes friends, *but* adversity tries them;

The rich have two sources of wealth, *whereas* the poor have but one.

NOTE:—The words *whereas*, *notwithstanding* (*that*), *but*, may be used as subordinative conjunctions also; for example:

I never see him *but* I laugh (=that I do *not* laugh).

Whereas I was blind, now I see.

3. **Alternative:** *either, or, else, neither, nor, otherwise.*

These conjunctions are called **alternative** because they are used when we wish to express an alternative or choice; thus,

The king must win *or* forfeit his crown;

You must be diligent *or else* you cannot succeed.

NOTE:—In the foregoing example the word *else* strengthens the alternative conjunction *or*. The two words may be taken together as forming a conjunction phrase.

4. **Causal:** *for, then, so, hence, therefore, accordingly.*

These conjunctions are called **causal** because the statements which they introduce express cause, reason, proof, inference, or conclusion, with regard to the preceding statements; thus,

Let us eat and drink, *for* to-morrow we die;

Wisdom is the principal thing; *therefore* get wisdom.

268. **Correlatives.**—In the sentence,

Either Calgary or Vancouver is his destination;

either and *or* are said to be **correlative**, (that is, “having a mutual relation”) because they generally occur together introducing the alternatives, and the former of them is always followed by the latter. Other correlatives are: *neither . . . nor*; *both . . . and*; *not only . . . but also*.

EXERCISE 116

Classify the co-ordinative conjunctions in the following sentences, and point out those that are correlative:

1. Straws swim on the surface, *but* pearls lie at the bottom.
2. The chief-justice was rich, quiet, *and* infamous.
3. In this world a man must be either a hammer *or* an anvil.

4. I recommend you to take care of the minutes, *for* the hours will take care of themselves.
5. Hatred stirreth up strifes, *but* love covereth all transgressions.
6. Man wants but little here below,
Nor wants that little long.
7. Master, we have toiled all the night, *and* have taken nothing; *nevertheless* at thy word I will let down the net.
8. A house which stands on open ground must have a sunny side *as well as* a shady. Be sure to live on the sunny side.
9. Neither a borrower *nor* a lender be,
For loan oft loses both itself *and* friend.
10. A man severe he was *and* stern to view;
I knew him well and every truant knew;
Yet he was kind, *or* if severe in aught,
The love he bore to learning was at fault.

269. Conjunctive Particles.—Words such as *also*, *too*, *besides*, *likewise*, are frequently used along with certain co-ordinative conjunctions, so as to strengthen their conjunctive value by drawing special attention to one of the notions which they connect. For instance, in the sentence,

The passengers and *also* the crew were saved;

the word *also* is used to emphasize the added notion of *the crew*, and this helps to strengthen the conjunctive value of *and*. Words which are used in this way are known as **conjunctive particles**. Other examples are:

I was tired and hungry *too*;

He lost his hat and his coat *besides*;

His father was an engineer, and his grandfather *likewise*.

IV. SUBORDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

270. Classification.—The subordinative conjunctions may be classified as follows, but in considering any classification we must remember that the same con-

junction has often a great variety of uses and meanings: Conjunctions of,

1. **Place:** *where, whence, whither, whereon, whereat.*
2. **Time:** *when, whenever, as, while, until, before, since.*
3. **Cause:** *when, as, because, whereas, since, seeing that.*
4. **Purpose:** *that, so that, lest.*
5. **Result:** *that, so that, lest, and sometimes till.*
6. **Condition:** *if, provided that, and the negative conjunctions, but, unless, except, when these words are used in the sense of if . . . not.*
7. **Concession:** *though, although, notwithstanding that, while, albeit.*
8. **Manner:** *as, how.*
9. **Degree (including Comparison):** *as, than.*

After *as* and *than* when used as conjunctions, the subordinate clause is frequently abbreviated; thus,

I like her better than (I like) him;
She is not so tall as he (is tall);

and through the omission of the whole clause we get the expressions,

as if, as though, as when, than if, than where, etc.

For example, the clauses,

He looks as if he were ill;
He is taller than when I saw him last

may be expanded as follows:

He looks as he would look if he were ill;
He is taller than he was tall when I saw him last.

On account of the similarity in function of *though* and *if*, we frequently use *as though* where strictly speaking we should use *as if*; for example,

He acts *as* (he would act) *though* he were king.

10. To the foregoing we add **Substantive Conjunctions**; that is, those introducing noun clauses: *that, whether, if, how, when, where, why, and others.*

NOTE:—1. The use of *that* as a substantive conjunction is derived from its use as a demonstrative pronoun. The following sentences will serve to illustrate the transition:

He is coming; I said *that*;
 I said *that*, (namely) he is coming;
 I said *that* he is coming.

In the first sentence *that* is a demonstrative pronoun relating to the preceding statement. In the second sentence it is a demonstrative pronoun followed by a noun clause in apposition with it. In the third sentence it has lost its pronominal force and is a pure conjunction.

2. In such constructions as,

That you have wronged me doth appear in this;
That he was there cannot be true;

that has only a part of its conjunctive value. In its ordinary use, it joins two clauses, introducing the subordinate one; here, it merely introduces the noun clause. In this use, (which is, of course, a direct result of its origin); *that* may be called an *introductory conjunctive particle*.

EXERCISE 117

Classify the subordinative conjunctions in the following sentences:

1. *When* law ends tyranny begins.
2. We sow *in order that* we may reap.
3. A man has no more religion *than* he acts out in his life.
4. *If* a fool knows a secret he tells it *because* he is a fool.
5. He gazed so long *that* both his eyes were dazzled.
6. It is doubtful *if* there ever was a good war.
7. Don't cross a bridge *till* you come to it.
8. *When* the night falls and dogs do howl,
 Sing, ho! for the reign of the horned owl.
9. The nightingale, *if* she should sing by day
When every goose is cackling, would be thought
 No better a musician *than* the wren.
10. As for man his days are as grass; *as* a flower of the field,
 so he flourisheth.

271. **Correlatives.**—Certain subordinative conjunctions are sometimes used in correlative relation (268) with adverbs, or with other conjunctions; thus,

When I go, *then* I will see him;
Though I fear him, *yet* I trust him;

other correlatives are, *where* . . . *there*; *while* . . . *yet*;
whether . . . *or*.

EXERCISE 118

Select the correlative words in each of the following sentences, and show the function of each:

1. As thy days so shall thy strength be.
2. In the place where the tree falleth there it shall lie.
3. When Greeks joined Greeks then was the tug of war.
4. Though I have not seen him for years, yet I remember him well.
5. He prayeth best who loveth best
All things both great and small.
6. Wheresoever the carcase is, there will the eagles be gathered together.
7. You may as well begin your work to-day as put it off until to-morrow.
8. I have neither wit nor words nor worth, action nor utterance, nor the power of speech, to stir men's blood.
9. Not only strike while the iron is hot, but make it hot by striking.
10. As far as the east is from the west, so far hath He removed our transgressions from us.

EXERCISE 119

State the different uses of "that" as found in the following sentences:

1. All *that* a man hath will he give for his life.
2. Are you certain *that* he said *that*?
3. On *that* particular morning it was snowing so heavily *that* I could scarcely see a yard in front of me.
4. Never leave *that* till to-morrow which you can do to-day.
5. A carriage like *that* should not have cost nearly *that* much.
6. When on my bed the moonlight falls
I know *that* in thy place of rest
By *that* broad water of the west,
There comes a glory on the walls.
7. Gather up the fragments *that* remain *that* nothing be lost.
8. He claimed *that that "that" that that* speaker used should have been "*this*."

9. He *that* hath, to him shall be given; and he *that* hath not, from him shall be taken even *that* which he hath.
10. Yet ah! *that* spring should vanish with the rose!
That youth's sweet-scented manuscript should close!
The nightingale *that* in the branches sang,
Ah, whence and whither flown again, who knows?

EXERCISE 120

State the uses of "as" as found in the following sentences:

1. We spend our years *as* a tale that is told.
2. I would not care to live in such a house *as* that.
3. *As* you are bound to go I will not detain you.
4. He is as happy *as* a man could wish to be.
5. *As* we go onward and come to the afternoon of life's day, let us make of it a psalm.
6. Hosts may in these wilds abound
Such *as* are better missed than found.
7. *As* the hart panteth after the water brooks,
so panteth my soul after thee.
8. Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note,
As his corpse to the rampart we hurried.
9. An idler is a watch that wants both hands,
As useless if it goes *as* if it stands.
10. The *as* which is used in the *as*-clause, in that sentence, is a subordinative conjunction.

EXERCISE 121

State the uses of "but" as found in the following sentences:

1. Man proposes *but* God disposes.
2. In Venice *but's* a traitor.
3. None knew her *but* to love her.
4. 'Tis *but* the wind whispering in the leaves
5. Each heart recalled a different name,
But all sang Annie Laurie.

6. The wedding guest sat on a stone;
He cannot choose *but* hear.
7. I never go without my umbrella *but* it is sure to rain.
8. There's not a man in the world *but* desires to be thought to be a wise man.
9. *But* yesterday the word of Cæsar might have stood against the world.
10. I never was on the dull, tame shore
But I loved the great sea more and more.

GENERAL EXERCISE

Parse the italicized conjunctions in the following sentences:

A

1. Drive thy business *or* it will drive thee.
2. Give not thy tongue too great a liberty *lest* it take thee prisoner.
3. Evil is wrought by want of thought
As well as want of heart.
4. Life is but thought; *so* think I will
That youth and I are housemates still.
5. We hate some persons *because* we do not know them *and* we will not know them because we hate them.
6. *As* one lamp lights another *nor* grows less, so nobleness enkindleth nobleness.
7. It is well *that* there is no one in the world without a fault, *for* he would not have a friend in the world.
8. It is a sad thing *when* men have *neither* wit to speak well *nor* judgment to hold their tongues.
9. He that tells a lie is not sensible how great a task he undertakes, *for* to maintain one he must invent twenty more.
10. I have been young, *and* now am old; *yet* have I not seen the righteous forsaken, *nor* his seed begging bread.

B

1. It is better to wear out *than* to rust out.
2. Care will kill a cat; *therefore* let's be merry.

3. Not in love neither? *Then* let's say you are sad *because* you are not merry.
4. Careless their merits *or* their faults to scan,
His pity gave *ere* charity began.
5. I am always afraid of a fool, *for* one cannot be sure
that he is not a knave *as well*.
6. There is never a storm on this coast *but* there is sure to
be a wreck.
7. The sailor tugged at the oars *as though* his life depended
on it.
8. It sometimes made him glad *when* he noticed how the
fishes kept their heads up stream. They, at least, stood
faithfully by him *while* all else were posting downward
to the unknown world.
9. Hastings continued even to take the lead at the council-
board in the transaction of ordinary business; *for* his
opponents could not but feel *that* he knew much of
which they were ignorant *and* that he decided *both*
surely and speedily many questions which to them would
have been hopelessly puzzling. *But* the higher powers
of government *as well as* the most valuable patronage,
had been taken from him.
10. I have already observed *how* I brought all my goods
into this pale and into the cave which I had made behind
me. But I must observe too *that* at first this was a
confused heap of goods which, *as* they lay in no order,
so they took up all my place; I had no room to turn
myself; *so* I set myself to enlarge my cave and *work*
farther into the earth; *for* it was a loose and sandy rock,
which yielded easily to the labour I bestowed on it; *and*
so, when I found I was pretty safe as to beasts of prey
I worked sideways to the right hand, into the rock, *and*
then, turning to the right again, worked quite out, and
made me a door to come out on the outside of my pale
or fortification. This gave me *not only* egress and
regress, *as* it was a back way to my tent and storehouse,
but gave me room to store my goods.

CHAPTER XIII

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

272. Classification.—As we have already seen, there are three kinds of subordinate clauses, noun, adjective, and adverb, and we shall now consider their uses in further detail.

I. NOUN CLAUSES

273. Uses of the Noun Clause.—The noun clause is used in almost all of the constructions in which the simple noun is used. The most important of these constructions are as follows:

1. Subject of the Verb;

What they say is not to the point;
Whether he will come is doubtful;
It (Repres. Subj.) is certain *that he is gone*.

2. Object of the Verb;

I don't know *what I shall do*;
They saw *that she was ill*;
We consider it (Repres. Obj.) advisable *that you should remain*.

NOTE:—(1) The noun clause in the objective relation may be subject of an infinitive (239), or may stand in the objective predicate relation (116):

Do you believe *what he says* to be true? (Subj. of Infin.)
We expect it to prove *what is needed*. (Obj. Pred.)

(2) In such sentences as,

O that he were here;

the noun clause is object of the interjection *O*, which is equivalent to "I wish."

3. Object of a Preposition;

He traded with *what capital he had*;
He says nothing but *what is true*.

NOTE:—(1) In such sentences as,

I cannot believe *but that you were there*;

We did not know *but that he would come*;

we may consider *but that* as a conjunction phrase, and the subordinate clauses as adverbial. In this construction *but* was originally a preposition (= "without," "except," "to the contrary of"), but in sentences such as the foregoing it retains very little of its original prepositional value.

(2) In the sentences,

They insisted *that we should stay*;

There is no need *that you should go*,

the clauses "that we should stay," and "that you should go," state what "they insisted *on*" and what "there is no need *of*," and both are introduced by the substantive conjunction *that*. However, owing to the fact that the prepositions *on* and *of* are not expressed, these clauses perform the functions of adverb and adjective respectively, and may be considered as equivalent in function to the phrases in the sentences:

They insisted *on our staying*;

There is no need *of your going*.

Other examples are:

We are sorry *that it is so*;

The doctors hold out no hope *that he will recover*;

I am undecided *what I should do*;

We don't care *who did it*.

(3) Words which were formerly prepositions governing noun clauses introduced by *that* have now come to be used, generally or always, directly as conjunctions, by the omission of *that*; for example:

after he had gone; *until* he shall arrive; *except* he confess it.

4. Predicate Noun (111);

The trouble is *that he is too rash*;

My hope is *that he will yield*.

5. In Apposition (112);

The fact *that it was done by him* is apparent;

He denied the statement *that he had failed*.

NOTE:—In older English the subject of a noun clause is sometimes anticipated by a noun or a pronoun standing as the direct object of the principal verb; thus,

Consider the *lilies* of the field, how *they* grow;
I see your father's *face*, that *it* is not toward me.

In each of those sentences the subordinate clause is a second object of the verb, helping to limit or define the meaning of the direct object.

6. Nominative Absolute (114);

We bought some more, *what we had* not proving sufficient;
Granted *that he did so*, what are you going to do?

EXERCISE 122

Select the subordinate noun clauses and state the relation of each:

A

1. Remember, prince, that thou shalt die.
2. Why you acted thus I cannot imagine.
3. We should strive to imitate what we most admire in others.
4. How he succeeded is a mystery to us all.
5. The imprudent man reflects on what he has said; the wise man on what he is going to say.
6. The house suits us in all respects except that it needs painting.
7. Men do not become rich by what they get, but by what they keep.
8. Whoever reflects on the uncertainty of his own life will find out that the state of others is not more permanent.
9. Autobiography is generally a man's view of what his biography ought to be.
10. Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends.
11. Never be afraid of what is good; the good is always the road to what is true.

12. Sir, I admit your general rule,
That every poet is a fool;
But you yourself may serve to show it,
That every fool is not a poet.

B

1. It is not good that man should be alone.
2. Be what you were meant to be.
3. Methinks there is much reason in his sayings.
4. See the dewdrops how they kiss
Every little flower that is.
5. It was all for our rightful king
That we left fair Scotland's strand.
6. Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood
be shed.
7. The planks looked warped, and see those sails
How thin they are and sere.
8. The world is before you and you can make it substan-
tially what you will.
9. It is a great pity that men and women forget that they
have been children.
10. We were undecided whether we should continue our
journey.

274. Direct and Indirect Narration.—The thought expressed in an assertive, interrogative, or imperative sentence may be reported:

- (1) As coming directly from the speaker; thus,

He said, "I am going home";
He gave the order, "Release the prisoner";
"Where are you going?" I inquired;
"Is your master at home?" I asked.

In these sentences the speaker's words are simply quoted, and no change of construction has taken place. This form of narration is said to be **direct**, and the construction of the sentences in inverted commas is also known as the direct construction.

All such expressions, whether they consist of one sentence, as above, or of more, as, for instance, in the

report of a speech, are the object of a verb of stating, asking, or commanding, being used in the sense of "The expression so and so with the meaning that belongs to it."

(2) As coming indirectly from the speaker; thus,

He said he was going home;

He gave orders that they should release the prisoner;

I inquired where he was going;

I asked if (or whether) his master was at home.

Here, a change of construction has taken place, and the narrated sentences have become subordinate noun clauses. This form of narration is said to be **indirect**, or **oblique**, and the construction is also known as the indirect, or oblique construction. These examples show:

(1) That indirect assertions or commands are usually introduced by *that*. In colloquial English, however, the conjunction is generally omitted.

(2) That indirect questions are introduced by *whether*, or *if*, if there is no interrogative word in the direct construction.

(3) That the verbs in the subordinate clauses follow the rule for the sequence of tenses already given (218).

II. ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

275. Relations.—The adjective clause is the simplest of the subordinate clauses in its uses. It is always the equivalent of an attributive or an appositive adjective, and is generally introduced by a conjunctive pronoun, or else by an adverbial conjunction.

NOTE (1).—In the following sentences the construction of the adjective clauses presents some difficulties:

I was not home the day that (=on which) you called;

This is the reason that (=for which) I sent for you;

Theirs (=of them) is the fault who began the quarrel;

He is not here that (antecedent "a being here," implied) I know of.

NOTE (2).—In such a sentence as, “It is I that speaks to you”; the clause *that speaks to you* is adjectival modifying the subject *it*. But as a matter of fact, in common usage, we generally write the sentence thus, “It is I that speak to you”; that is, we treat the clause as if it modified *I* rather than *it*. We readily connect the clause with *I*, not only because it immediately follows *I*, but also because *I* is the most important word in the sentence.

Furthermore, in the sentence, “It is you that I am speaking to”; the preposition *to* governs the pronoun *that* in the objective case. But a sentence such as this is felt to be rather clumsy, and we sometimes write it thus,

It is to you that I am speaking;

so that instead of governing the pronoun *that*, the preposition is transferred to the principal clause and governs the pronoun *you*.

276. Limiting and Descriptive Adjective Clauses.—We have seen (186) that adjectives may be classified according to function as limiting, or restrictive, on the one hand, and as descriptive, or explanatory, on the other. The same distinction holds with respect to adjective clauses; that is, an adjective clause is said to be limiting, or restrictive, when it is used for the purpose of enabling us to distinguish the person or thing represented by the modified noun or pronoun from others of the same class; and it is said to be descriptive, or explanatory, when it is used merely for the purpose of describing the person or thing represented by the modified noun or pronoun, or explaining something regarding the person or thing; thus:

The house that stood here was burned to the ground; (*limiting*)
Last night we arrived at Colchester, which is an old Roman town. (*descriptive*)

NOTE:—When the adjective clause introduced by the conjunctive is used to *limit* the meaning of the noun or pronoun that it modifies, *that* is generally used. The best usage, how-

ever, sanctions the use of *who* and *which* also, except in cases where ambiguity would result; for example:

People *that* (or *who*) live in glass houses should never throw stones;

A lie *that* (or *which*) is part a truth is a hard matter to fight. On the other hand, when the adjective clause introduced by the conjunctive is used to *describe* the object for which the modified noun stands, *who* or *which* is almost always used; for example:

Beethoven, *who* (not *that*) wrote the Moonlight Sonata, became deaf;

Our house, *which* (not *that*) stands a little back from the street, is shaded with elms.

EXERCISE 123

Show whether the adjective clauses in the following sentences are limiting or descriptive:

1. Our house, which was built last year, is for sale.
2. I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows.
3. I learned of it from my mother, who heard of it from a friend.
4. The world is a comedy to those that think,—a tragedy to those who feel.
5. A stone that is fit for the wall is never left in the way.
6. Now glory to the Lord of Hosts, from whom all glories are.
7. He prayeth best who loveth best
All things both great and small.
8. Discover the opinion of your enemies, which is commonly the truest.
9. That which grows fast, withers rapidly; that which grows slowly, endures.
10. Welcome, learned Cicero, whose blessed tongue and wit preserves Rome's greatness yet.

277. Logical Values.—We frequently meet with clauses which, though adjectival in form and relation, differ from the ordinary limiting and explanatory adjective clauses in logical values.

(1) Limiting adjective clauses are sometimes logically adverbial in value; for example:

Any one *who* (= "if he" or "when he") would do that would be a fool;

Those *who* had taken no part in the uprising (= "because they had taken," etc.) were not molested.

(2) Descriptive adjective clauses are also sometimes logically adverbial in value; for example:

We children, to *whom* he showed such kindness, (= "because he," etc.) grieved sincerely over his loss;

He deceived his master, *who* (= "although he") had been his friend.

(3) Descriptive adjective clauses are sometimes logically equivalent to co-ordinate principal clauses; thus,

I gave him some bread, *which* (= "and it," or "and this") he ate;

He passed it to the stranger, *who* (= "and he") drank heartily;

She carried it to the closet, *where* (= "and there") she hid it;

His father, *who* (= "for he") was close by, came over at once.

In clauses of this character, *which* and *as* may have their antecedent implied in the preceding context (148; 151); thus,

He did not come, *which* I greatly regret;

He has been long dead, *as* is well known;

the antecedents being "his not coming" and "his being dead," which are implied in the sentences.

EXERCISE 124

Select the adjective clauses in the following sentences, and state the relation of each:

1. They that govern most make least noise.
2. The best thing I know between England and France is the sea.
3. He that loses his conscience has nothing left that is worth keeping.
4. Learning hath gained most by those books by which the printers have lost.
5. The last of all the bards was he,
Who sung of border chivalry.

6. The law is hard on man or woman
That steals the goose from off the common,
But lets the greater sinner loose
That steals the common from the goose.
7. I hold that gentleman to be the best dressed whose dress
no one observes.
8. Shakespeare, who was the greatest of English poets, was
born in Stratford-on-Avon.
9. What is celebrity? The advantage of being known to
people who don't know you.
10. To me the meanest flower that blows can give
Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears.
11. Reflect upon your present blessings, of which every man
has many; not on your past misfortunes, of which all
men have some.
12. What hand but would a garland cull
For thee, who art so beautiful?

III. ADVERB CLAUSES

278. Classification.—The adverb clause usually modifies a verb, much less often an adjective; and an adverb rarely, except in the way of defining a degree. Adverb clauses may be introduced by a great variety of conjunctions, and they have the same variety of meanings which belong to simple adverbs. The classification given below is not exhaustive nor absolute; for the different classes shade off into one another, and the same conjunction has a variety of uses, as the examples given partly show.

Thus we have adverb clauses of:

(1) Place;

He lay *where he fell*;
Whither I go ye cannot come.

(2) Time;

When I awoke it was one o'clock;
I have not seen him *since he returned*.

(3) Cause;

*Since you say so we will believe it;
The hireling fleeth, because he is an hireling.*

(4) Purpose;

*He died that we might live;
He studies hard lest he should fail.*

(5) Result and Effect;

*He was so weak that he fell;
He is in such distress that I pity him;
What were you doing that you are so late?
He shouted till the woods rang.*

In the first example *that he fell* and *so* together modify *weak* (logically the adverb clause modifies *so weak*); and, in the second, the adverb clause modifies *such*, as it would modify logically *so great* if we made the substitution.

(6) Condition;

*If you work hard you should succeed;
I will do it provided I get the time.*

NOTE:—(1) Condition is sometimes expressed by the inversion of the order of subject and predicate in the subordinate clause, rather than by the use of a subordinative conjunction; thus,

*Should I go I will call for you;
Were he here I would accuse him;*

instead of:

*If I should go I will call for you;
If he were here I would accuse him.*

This is called **conditional inversion** and the sentence is said to be an **inverted conditional** sentence. This construction has grown out of the interrogative sentence.

(2) Both the interrogative and the imperative sentences are sometimes used to express a condition. Thus, the sentences,

*Is any among you afflicted? Let him pray;
Fling but a stone, the giant dies;*

are equivalent to,

*If any among you is afflicted, let him pray;
If you fling but a stone the giant dies.*

And the imperatives *suppose*, *admit*, *grant*, and *say* (some of which, in their weakened sense, may be valued as conjunctions), are sometimes used to introduce conditional clauses; thus,

Suppose he fail what matter does it make?

Say I be entertained, what then shall follow?

(3) So, too, some participles in the absolute construction, by the omission of *that*, have come to have the value of conjunctions; thus,

You shall have it *provided it pleases you*;

where the full construction would be,

(*that*) *it pleases you (being) provided*.

In older English and in poetry we find archaic conjunctions or conjunction phrases of condition; thus, for example;

Yet what is death, *so* it be glorious?

Catch me *an* (=“if”) thou canst;

So as men live in peace, they die free from strife.

(7) Concession;

Though he worked hard he did not succeed;

While I condemn him, yet I pity him.

The condition or concession expressed in the subordinate clause may be represented in one of three ways,—as an open question, as an imaginary case (pure supposition), or as impossible; and the main clause in each sentence indicates whether we think it possible that the consequence will be realized; thus, for example:

(a) Open:

If you go, I shall see you;

Though he be (or, is) anxious to return, we cannot permit him.

(b) Imaginary:

I could not act thus, even if I were insane;

Though all men should condemn him, yet I would believe him.

(c) Impossible:

If thou hadst been here my brother had not died;

Though I have all faith so that I could remove mountains and have not charity, I am nothing.

NOTE:—(1) In such sentences as;

Whatever you say, you must speak the truth;

However he struggles, he cannot escape;

the subordinate clauses are adverbial of concession, although not introduced by subordinative conjunctions. This will be at once evident if we write the sentences as follows:

(*Though*) *you say anything (whatever)*, you must speak the truth;

(*Though*) *he struggles in any way (however)*, he cannot escape.

(2) In such sentences as,

Come what may, I am bound to see him;

Do what you will, you cannot succeed;

Hurry as you will, you are sure to be late;

the subordinate clauses are also adverbial of concession. This will be evident if we expand the sentences as follows:

(*Though*) *what may (come) come*, I am bound to see him;

(*Though* *you*) *do what you will (do)*, you cannot succeed;

(*Though* *you*) *hurry as you will (hurry)*, you are sure to be late.

(8) **Manner;**

He has not acted *as he should have done*;

I do not think *as you do* regarding it.

(9) **Degree;**

His word is *as good as his bond (is good)*;

This is *better than we had expected*;

The more I knew of him the better I liked him.

NOTE:—(1) As already pointed out (270), clauses introduced by *as* and *than* are often abbreviated; thus,

Send me word *as soon as possible*;

Do not go to any more trouble *than necessary*.

(2) *Than* and *as* are frequently combined with adverbs or other conjunctions to form conjunction phrases; for example:

so as, according as, as if, than if.

(3) The sentence,

The sooner he comes the better;

when expanded is equivalent to,

By how much sooner he comes, by that much better (it will be).

The second clause, "the better," is therefore the principal clause, and *The* in the first clause is correlative with *the* in the second.

EXERCISE 125

Select the subordinate adverbial clauses in the following sentences, and state the kind and relation:

A

1. While there is life there is hope.
2. Smooth runs the water where the brook is deep.
3. Laziness travels so slowly that poverty soon overtakes him.
4. She was a phantom of delight
When first she gleamed upon my sight.
5. Turn away thine eyes, lest they behold vanity.
6. As the sun breaks through the darkest clouds,
So honour peereth in the meanest habit.
7. Unless you hurry you are sure to miss the train.
8. Then Denmark blessed our chief
That he gave her wounds repose.
9. In the blue air no smoky cloud
Hung over wood and lea,
When the old church with the fretted tower
Had a hamlet round its knee.
10. So long as we love we serve; so long as we are loved by others I would almost say that we are indispensable, and no man is useless while he has a friend.

B

1. What is man that thou art mindful of him?
2. Seeing it is your own fault, you are not to be pitied.
3. Had I a heart for falsehood framed,
I ne'er could injure you.
4. The more some men have, the more they want.
5. Knock as you please, no one will answer you.
6. I could not love you, dear, so much,
Loved I not honour more.
7. "Let me have a companion of my way," says Sterne,
"were it but to remark how the shadows lengthen as the sun declines."

8. Convince a man against his will,
He's of the same opinion still.
9. Beware of desperate steps! The darkest day,
Live till to-morrow, will have passed away.
10. There's a divinity that shapes our ends,
Rough-hew them how we will.

EXERCISE 126

Expand each of the subordinate clauses in brackets so as to show the relation to the main clause:

1. (Whatever happens) I shall be satisfied.
2. (Much as it may grieve you) you must learn the truth.
3. Truth is truth (come whence it may).
4. (Whatever record leap to light) he never shall be shamed.
5. (Fight as they may) they are sure to meet defeat.
6. (Howe'er it be) it seems to me
'Tis only noble to be good.
7. (Come what may) time and the hour runs through the
roughest day.
8. (Whoever fights, whoever falls,) justice conquers ever-
more.
9. (Much as I admire his talents) I cannot approve of his
conduct.
10. (However good you may be) you have faults, and
(however dull you may be) you can find out what
some of them are.

GENERAL EXERCISE

Select the subordinate clauses in the following sentences, and give the kind and relation of each:

A

1. Let him that thinketh he standeth take heed lest he fall.
2. Blessed is he that expecteth nothing, for he shall not be disappointed.
3. He that observeth the winds shall not sow and he that regardeth the clouds shall not reap.

4. If you cannot have what you like, you can at least like what you have.
5. She loved me for the dangers I had passed,
And I loved her that she did pity them.
6. The crow doth sing as sweetly as the lark when neither is attended.
7. Lord, make me to know mine end, and the measure of my days, what it is; that I may know how frail I am.
8. The old order changeth, yielding place to new,
And God fulfils himself in many ways,
Lest one good custom should corrupt the world.
9. If it were done when it is done, then 'twere well it were done quickly.
10. As long as the Coliseum stands, Rome shall stand; when the Coliseum falls Rome will fall; when Rome falls the world will fall.

B

1. O that I might live my life again.
2. Whether it is stormy or not we intend to set out.
3. They are very anxious that we should subscribe.
4. I don't know but I will go after all.
5. Who chooseth me shall get as much as he deserves.
6. I am no orator, as Brutus is,
But, as you know me all, a plain blunt man
That love my friend.
7. Have little care that life is brief,
And less that Art is long;
Success is in the silences,
Though Fame is in the song.
8. Since he stands obdurate,
And that no lawful means can carry me
Out of his envy's reach, I do oppose
My patience to his fury.
9. Be the day weary, be the day long,
At length it ringeth to evensong.
10. I hold it true, whate'er befall,
I feel it when I sorrow most,
'Tis better to have loved and lost
Than never to have loved at all.

C

1. He that imagines he hath knowledge enough hath none.
2. There is some soul of goodness in things evil, would men discerningly distil it out.
3. If a man can write a better book, preach a better sermon, or make a better mouse-trap than his neighbour, though he build his house in the woods the world will make a beaten path to his door.
4. Conceal not the meanness of thy family, nor think it disgraceful to be descended from peasants; for when it is seen that thou art not thyself ashamed, none will endeavour to make thee so.
5. There are two men who are happy, the ignorant man, who is happy because he thinks he knows everything, and the learned man, who is happy because he knows there will always be something to learn.
6. "If my mother said it was so, it is so, even if it isn't so," said a boy, defending his mother at school.
7. It is easier to alter than to improve. Jupiter upon being invited to mend a fault in human nature declined on the plea that man is such a complicated piece of machinery that if he touched one part he might probably spoil the whole.
8. Whosoever acquires knowledge and does not practise it resembles him who ploughs his land and leaves it unsown.
9. "Once," said Dr. Johnson, "I thought of learning to play the flageolet; but after taking a few lessons I found that it would interfere with my great work, because if I played the flageolet at all I must do it well. Therefore I gave it up."
10. Sir, said Christian, I am a man that am come from the City of Destruction, and am going to Mount Zion; and I was told by the man that stands at the gate at the head of this way, that if I called here, you would show me excellent things such as would be a help to me on my journey. Then said the Interpreter, Come in; I will show thee that which will be profitable to thee.

CHAPTER XIV

UNUSUAL AND DIFFICULT CONSTRUCTIONS

279. Order of Treatment.—Besides the ordinary uses of the parts of speech discussed in the foregoing chapters, there are a number of unusual and difficult constructions, which require special mention. These will be considered in the same order as the parts of speech in the earlier chapters in the book.

I. THE NOUN: THE NOMINATIVE CASE

The regular construction in which the noun or pronoun is in the nominative case subject of the verb (110) presents little difficulty, but two variations of the construction call for notice.

280. Subject Repeated.—Sometimes the subject is repeated, in order either to secure greater clearness, or to emphasize its importance.

(a) In the following sentence:

The armaments which thunderstrike the walls
Of rock-built cities, bidding nations quake
And monarchs tremble in their capitals;
The oak leviathans, whose huge ribs make
Their clay creator the vain title take
Of lord of thee and arbiter of war,—
These are thy toys.

the word *These* is used, for the sake of clearness, to represent the subjects *armaments* and *leviathans*, which are separated from the verb by long subordinate clauses.

(b) In the sentence,

Few, *few* shall part where many meet;

the subject *few* is repeated for the sake of greater force; and in the sentence,

Peace, O Virtue, *peace* is all thy own;

the subject *peace* is repeated in order to emphasize its importance.

281. Anacoluthic Subject.—Sometimes after we have begun a sentence we find that we can express our thoughts more satisfactorily by using another construction. The noun or the pronoun which should have been the subject of the sentence, had the original construction been followed, is thus left without grammatical connection, and it is therefore said to be **anacoluthic**, that is, “lacking in sequence or connection.” Examples are:

But *he*, the chieftain of them all,—

His sword hangs rusting on the wall;

He that curseth father or mother, let him die the death.

II. OBJECTS OF VERBS USUALLY INTRANSITIVE

282. Intransitive Verbs Used Transitively.—In Chapter VI we noticed the more important constructions in which verbs which do not usually take an object are followed by one. Other constructions of this nature are as follows:

(a) **Impersonal Objects.**—In such sentences as,

Go *it*!

They footed *it* through the streets;

Well Tom, how are you making *it* go?

the word *it* is used as object merely for the sake of adding force to the expression. As it does not represent any definite thing, it is known as the **impersonal** object of the verb. (*Impersonal* means “not representing any person or thing.”)

(b) **Object of a Causative Verb.**—In the sentences,

The horse trots;

The engine runs;

the verbs *trots* and *runs* do not require an object; but we may use these verbs in the sense of *causing to trot*, *causing to run*, in which case they must be completed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case; thus,

He trots his *horse*;
He runs the *engine*.

Verbs which are used in this way are known as **causative verbs**, and the nouns or pronouns which complete them are described as *objects of causative verbs*.

(c) **Object of a Preposition Implied.**—In such sentences as,

He sailed the Spanish *Main*;
He sat his *horse* well;

the relation between the verb and the object might be expressed by means of a preposition, as,

He sailed *over* the Spanish *Main*;
He sat *on* his *horse* well;

and it is only when we extend the meaning of these verbs to include the ideas expressed by the prepositions, that they can be said to take objects.

(d) **Object of Incomplete Verb.**—In such sentences as,

We thought *him* a fine scholar;
He walked *himself* weary;
They intended *us* to go too;

the nouns or the pronouns in the objective cannot stand as objects by themselves. In each case the construction is completed by some other word such as a noun, an adjective (116), or an infinitive (239), which is closely related to the noun or pronoun in the objective and with it forms the complete object of the verb.

EXERCISE 127

Explain the relation of each of the italicized nouns and pronouns in the following sentences, noting any peculiarities of construction:

1. Horatius swam the *river* Tiber.
2. We have been roughing *it* here for some weeks.
3. The vessel will not shoot the *rapids* to-day.
4. Small strokes fell great *oaks*.
5. He disguised *himself* as a common soldier.
6. She plays the *piano* well.
7. Say your *say* and be done with it.
8. We did not think our *position* quite safe.
9. The engineer blew the mill *whistle*.
10. Owe no man anything but to love *one another*.

III. OBJECTIVES WHICH REPRESENT OLD ENGLISH DATIVES

283. **Survival of the Old English Dative.**—There are certain uses of the noun or pronoun which represent the so-called **dative** case, which was formerly distinguished in English by a difference of form, and which is still so distinguished in many languages. The dative expressed the relation usually denoted in Modern English by *to* or *for*. One of these uses has already been considered in our treatment of the indirect object (121). The following are additional constructions in which the dative still survives in Modern English:

(a) **Objects of *near*, *like*, etc.:** In Old English the word *near* was used as an adverb, and the word *like* was used sometimes as an adjective and sometimes as an adverb. Both words, however, including their derivatives, *nearer*, *nearest*, *next*, *likest*, had the power of governing nouns and pronouns in the dative case. But as commonly used in Modern English they have lost most of their original adverbial or adjectival value, and when they govern nouns or pronouns they may be considered simply as prepositions; for example:

He sits *nearest* the door;

She looks more *like* you than any one else.

(b) **Objective of Exclamation:** In Old English, nouns or pronouns in the dative case were sometimes used after interjections. Nouns or pronouns used in this construction in Modern English are said to be in the **objective of exclamation**; for example:

Woe is *me!* Ah *me!* Alas the *day!*

(c) **With Impersonal Verbs.**—An Old English dative still survives in such expressions as *methinks*, *methought*, *meseems*, *melists*, etc.; for example:

And now, fair dames, *methinks* I see
You listen to my minstrelsy.

NOTE:—The verb *thinks* in the impersonal *methinks*, must not be confused with the verb *think* in "I *think*." The former is derived from A. S. *thinkan*, "to seem"; the latter from the A. S. *thencan*, "to think." *Methinks* means "It seems to me."

In the expression *If you please*, the verb *please* is in reality impersonal and the expression is a contraction of *If it please you*.

Impersonal verbs were more frequently used in older English than in the present day. Other examples are:

It *irks* me; It *shames* me; It *yearns* me; It *likes* me; It *repents* me.

(d) **Ethical Dative.**—In older English we occasionally find that the pronoun is used in the dative case without a governing word, to express interest, advantage, or disadvantage, as in the sentence,

See how this river comes *me* cranking in,
And cuts *me* from the best of all my land
A huge half-moon, a monstrous cantle out.

A pronoun which is used in this way is said to be in the **ethical dative** construction. (*Ethical* is from the Greek word *ethos*, which means "character.")

EXERCISE 128

Explain why each of the italicized nouns and pronouns in the following sentences is said to be in the objective case:

1. Give every *man* his due.
2. 'Twas near the *time* of curfew bell.
3. *Methinks* there is much reason in his sayings.

4. Do *me* this problem if *you* please.
5. Like *leviathans* afloat
Lay their bulwarks on the brine.
6. Ah *me!* those joyous days are gone!
7. A man's best things are nearest *him*,
Lie close about his feet.
8. *Me* miserable! which way shall I fly,
Infinite wrath and infinite despair?
9. "Archers," he cried, "send *me* an arrow through yon
monk's frock."
10. When, in Salamanca's cave,
Him listed his magic wand to wave,
The bells would ring in Notre Dame.

IV. CASE CONSTRUCTIONS AFTER "AS" AND "TO BE"

284.—Constructions with As.—Sometimes a noun in apposition, or in the predicate nominative or the objective predicate relation, is connected with the word to which it is related by the particle *as*, meaning, "in the character of," or "in the capacity of"; for example:

As a scholar he has few equals;
Will you act *as* usher?
The meat became *as* wormwood;
They elected him *as* mayor.

The use of *as* in these sentences does not affect the case constructions of the nouns following.

285. Constructions with To Be.—Sometimes, also, the infinitive *to be* is similarly used to connect a noun or pronoun in the predicate nominative or the objective predicate with the word to which it is related; thus,

He appeared *to be* a foreigner;
I believe him *to be* an honest man;
I took the tall lady *to be* you.

In these sentences the infinitive *to be* does not affect the case of the noun or pronoun following.

V. THE POSSESSIVE: ITS RELATIONS

286. Other Relations Expressed.—The possessive case, as we have already seen (128), is most commonly used to denote ownership or possession, and from this use the name *possessive* is derived. But besides denoting possession the possessive case is used to express a number of other relations, the most important of which may be described as follows:

1. The Adverbial possessive. When the noun in the possessive denotes the measure of the action, or of the quantity or quality expressed by the modified noun, it is said to be in the **adverbial** possessive case. Examples are:

a dollar's worth of sugar; three days' grace; a hand's breadth.

2. The Subjective possessive. When the noun in the possessive denotes the doer of an action expressed by the modified noun, it is said to be in the **subjective** possessive case. Thus in the expressions,

a mother's love; Troy's fall; the eagle's flight;

it is implied that

a mother loves; Troy has fallen; the eagle flies.

3. The Objective possessive. When the noun in the possessive denotes the object of some action expressed by the modified noun, it is said to be in the **objective** possessive case. Thus in the expressions,

the prisoner's punishment; Hannibal's defeat; Duncan's murder;

it is implied that some one,

punishes the prisoner; defeats Hannibal; murders Duncan.

4. The Appositive possessive. When the noun in the possessive and the modified noun are different names for the same thing, the former is said to be in the **appositive** possessive case. Examples are:

Albion's isle; cool Siloam's shady rill.

NOTE:—The appositive possessive is now almost obsolete, but it occurs sometimes in poetry. It is analogous to the appositive adjective phrase with *of* in such constructions as,

the city of London; the continent of America.

EXERCISE 129

Classify the nouns in the possessive case in the following sentences as expressing possession, or as subjective, objective, adverbial, or appositive in value.

1. He has taken a month's holiday.
2. We visited St. Giles' Cathedral in Edinburgh.
3. Napoleon's banishment to St. Helena was a necessity.
4. The passengers refused to follow the captain's advice.
5. The spicy breezes blow soft on Ceylon's isle.
6. In a fine spring morning all men's sins are forgiven.
7. The hero's praise was in everybody's mouth.
8. "Good evening!" said the poet, "Can you give a traveller a night's lodging?"
9. Mountains dark and tall
Rise like the rocks that part Hispania's land from Gaul.
10. God the traitor's hope confound!
11. He was presented with a set of Shakespeare's works.
12. Our book-keeper has gone on a two weeks' vacation.
13. I've read of far-famed Tempe's vale.
14. Helen's beauty was the cause of Troy's destruction.
15. We passed within a stone's throw of his house.

287. Adjectival Value of the Possessive.—As we have already seen (187), in its ordinary use the possessive modifies another noun in the sentence, much in the same way as an attributive adjective. Sometimes, however, when the noun on which it is dependent is omitted, it is also used in the various other constructions of the adjective; thus,

Simple predicate,	The book is <i>John's</i> ;
Objective predicate,	I consider this property (to be) my <i>master's</i> .
Appositive,	Yonder house, the <i>governor's</i> , is guarded by soldiers.

Also, like an adjective used as a noun; thus,

- John's book is better than Harry's;
Bring me a volume of poems, Tennyson's preferred.

VI. THE PRONOUN—OLDER FORMS AND USES

288. **Ye and You.**—Until about the end of the fifteenth century *ye* was the nominative, and *you* the objective of the pronoun,—a distinction which is maintained in the authorized version of the Bible; thus,

Ye have not chosen me but I have chosen *you*.

In the sixteenth century, however, we often find these words interchanged; thus, in Shakespeare,

I do beseech *ye*, if *you* bear me hard.

Later, *you* became established as both nominative and objective, and *ye* became archaic and poetic.

289. **'em.**—The form *'em* is sometimes found in poetry; thus,

Call *'em*; let me see *'em*; (Shakespeare)

And I had done a hellish thing

And it would work *'em* woe. (Coleridge)

This form is not an abbreviation for *them*, but is a contraction for *hem*, which was the older dative plural form of the pronoun *he*.

290. **Possessive Cases.**—We have seen (168) that such forms as *my*, *our*, *his*, *their*, are to be considered as pronominal adjectives rather than as pronouns in the possessive case, when they modify nouns.

But in such sentences as,

Let grief and sorrow still embrace *his* heart

That doth not wish thee joy;

My lord and lady, it is now *our* turn

That have stood by, to cry good joy;

they are really possessive cases in function, since the expression "*his* heart" is the equivalent of "the heart of *him*," and "*our* turn" of "the turn of *us*."

So, too, in colloquial English of the present day, we find such sentences as,

Having heard **the** noise, *my* attention was aroused;

in which "*my* attention" is the equivalent of "the attention of *me*." But such constructions, though very common, are not now used by careful writers and speakers.

291. *Whether*, once an interrogative pronoun, is not now so used. It is an archaic word for "which one of two," or for *which*, when the reference is to two; thus,

Whether is greater, the gift or the altar?

Whether of them twain did the will of his father?

292. *Which*, now used only of things, or of persons collectively, formerly applied to individual persons also; it was then regarded as more definite than *that*, and less so than *who*; thus,

Our Father *which* art in heaven, etc.

In older English, and even now in poetry, *the which* is used for greater definiteness, instead of the simple *which*; for example, in Byron,

'Twas a foolish quest,

The which to gain and keep, he sacrificed all rest.

293. *What*.—In older English *what* is sometimes used adverbially; thus in,

What need we wine when we have Nilus to drink of?

it is used in the sense of *why*. Sometimes even now, in the less formal style, we find such examples as,

What (= "in what respect") better will that make it?

What (= "partly") with one thing and *what* (= "partly")

with another, I was kept busy all the time.

EXERCISE 130

Parse the italicized nouns and pronouns in the following sentences:

1. The stranger passed himself off as an English *lord*.
2. His praise is lost *who* waits till all commend.
3. Even at the base of *Pompey's* statue,
Which all the *while* ran *blood*, great Cæsar fell.
4. Even *thou* who mournest the daisy's fate,—
That fate is thine.

5. As *Hamlet* he acts his part well, but as Othello he is a failure.
6. Render unto Cæsar the things that are *Cæsar's*.
7. He is not going to lord *it* over me if I can help *it*.
8. *Methought* while she *liberty* sang
'*T* was liberty only to hear.
9. Now the Lord had said unto Abram, "Get *thee* out from thy country and from thy kindred, into a land that I will show *thee*."
10. *Friends*, books, a garden, and perhaps his pen,
Delightful industry enjoyed at home,
And Nature in her cultivated trim,
Dress'd to his taste, inviting him abroad,—
Can he want occupation who has these?

VII. THE ADJECTIVE: RELATIONS

294. Difficulty of Classification.—We have seen that an adjective (or a participle) may stand in either the attributive, the appositive, or the predicate relation to the word which it modifies (182-185), and we have further classified predicate adjectives as ordinary, adverbial, and objective (185). It is, however, not always possible to classify adjectives accurately according to relation, as in some of their uses the different constructions shade into each other.

1. Adverbial Predicate Adjective.—The ordinary predicate use of the adjective sometimes shades into the adverbial construction, and as some words have the same form whether used as adjectives or adverbs, it is difficult in some cases to determine their exact value.

(a) In the following sentences the italicized words are ordinary predicate adjectives:

The snow lies *deep*;
The ground looks *dry*;
I thought I should go *mad*;
He does not feel *well* to-day.

(b) In the following the italicized words are adverbs:

The stream runs *fast*;
 He plays the piano *well*;
 He spoke *loud*, (or *loudly*);
 The birds sang *clear*, (or *clearly*).

(c) In the following, however, the italicized words are adverbial predicate adjectives, shading in some cases into either adjectives or adverbs:

He lies *quiet*;
 The kettle boils *dry*;
 The apple feels *ripe*;
 He stood *firm*;
 The bell rings *loud*.

2. Appositive Adverbial Predicate Adjective.—The adverbial predicate use of the adjective shades into a construction in which the adjective is not so closely connected with the rest of the sentence, in meaning, but resembles the ordinary appositive. Compare, for example, the following:

(a) Ordinary adverbial predicate:

The day dawned *fresh* and fair;
 He stood *firm* and unmoved amid dangers;
 These flowers are blooming *wild* in the woods.

(b) Appositive adverbial predicate:

At last the day dawned, *fresh* and fair;
 There he stood, *firm* and unmoved amid dangers;
 These flowers are blooming, *wild* and luxuriant, in the woods.

VIII. USES OF MANY AND FEW

295. Used as Adjective and Noun.—The word *many* is sometimes used as an adjective; thus,

many friends, *very many* friends;

and sometimes as a noun; thus,

a great *many* of our friends.

Two varieties of the foregoing constructions, however, present difficulties which call for notice:

(a) In the sentence,

Very many of my friends were there;

it is evident that *Very many* is a noun phrase. Since *many* may be used as either an adjective or a noun, it is not surprising that we should find *very many* also used in both ways, although in the phrase itself *very* is an adverb modifying the adjective *many*.

NOTE:—The word *few* has by analogy come to be used in the same constructions as *many*; for example:

few friends; *very few* friends; *a few* of my friends; *very few* or *a very few* of my friends

(b) In the sentence,

We met *a great many* friends;

if we were to supply the preposition *of* before the noun *friends*, *many* would be a noun; but the omission of *of* gives the group of words *a great many* an adjective value.

The italicized words or groups of words in expressions such as the following, must also be considered as adjectives:

a few men; *all* the men; *both* the men; *a dozen* men; *two hundred* men; *threescore* men.

NOTE:—The italicized expressions were, no doubt, originally related to the nouns following by means of prepositions, as in the expressions, *a few of the men*, *a dozen of the men*, etc.

296. *Many a*.—In such expressions as “full *many a* gem,” “*many an* opportunity,” the expressions *many a* and *many an* must also be considered as adjectives. The origin of *many* in these expressions has not been ascertained. It seems to have the force of a multiplicative numeral adverb, so that the expression *many a gem* would mean “many times one gem.” Such expressions as *many a gem* are considered as being in the singular number; thus,

Many a man *has* had greater trials than this.

EXERCISE 131

Parse the italicized expressions in the following sentences:

1. He has *a great many* faults.
2. He read what *few* books he had.
3. There were scarcely *a dozen* people present.
4. We have not read *very many* of these stories.
5. He has not been seen for *many* a long day.
6. *All* thy waves and thy billows are gone over me.
7. Earth with her *thousand* voices praises God.
8. *Very few* people have ever heard of him.
9. *Several* hundred people visited the scene of the accident.
10. *Many* a carol old and saintly sang the minstrel.
11. Their peal the merry horns rung out;
 A hundred voices joined the shout.
12. Give *a little* love to a child, and you get *a great* deal back.

IX. THE VERB: USES OF HAVE

297. Auxiliary and Independent Verb.—The use of *have* as an auxiliary (207) should be distinguished from its use as a principal verb. Note the different shades of meaning expressed in the following sentences:

- I have your book in my pocket; (*possession*)
- I have to see him before to-morrow; (*obligation*)
- I'll have my servant deliver the message; (*cause*)
- I have my letter written. (*possession of something as a result of action completed*)

In the last sentence, *have* is a transitive verb and *written* is in the objective predicate relation. In the course of time, however, *have* became more closely attached to the participle, and thus came to be regarded more and more as expressing completed action rather than possession. Hence we have the perfect verb phrase as in the following:

- I have written my letter; (*action completed*)

X. SPECIAL PASSIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

298. **Special Constructions.**—In connection with the passive conjugation (233) the following constructions require consideration:

(a) If we compare the sentences,

The door *was closed* behind me by the servant;

When I reached the house I found that the door *was closed*;

we shall find that the expression *was closed* in the first sentence is a passive verb phrase, while the expression *was closed* in the second sentence is comprised of the copula and a predicate adjective. *Was closed* in the first sentence indicates that the action of closing was exerted upon the door. *Was closed* in the second sentence simply expresses the condition in which the door was found to be. Hence the combinations of the verb *be* with the forms of the perfect participle are or are not passive verb phrases according as the participle denotes actual enduring of action, or condition as the result of action.

(b) In such constructions as the following, which are found in older English:

A house *is building* in this street;

A bill *was preparing* against the royalists;

is building and *was preparing* are really passive in meaning.

Expressions of this character, which are identical in form with the progressive verb phrase, have arisen through the omission of a preposition which originally preceded the infinitive in *ing*; thus,

A house is *in* (or *on*) *building*;

A house is *a-building*;

A house is *building*.

(c) In sentences such as,

The rose *smells* sweet;

This carriage *rides* easy;

The book *sells* well;

the verb *smells*, *rides*, and *sells* are active in form, but are not active in meaning. Verbs so used are called

middle verbs, as if they expressed a meaning between the active and the passive conjugation.

XI. THE INFINITIVE: PECULIAR CONSTRUCTIONS

299. Idiomatic Constructions.—Besides the more common uses of the infinitive already described (239), there are a number of idiomatic constructions which require special consideration:

1. In the sentences,

You must act so as *to win* approbation;

He is such a fool as *to believe* the story;

the infinitives *to win* and *to believe* must be considered as having the value of adverb and adjective respectively. These constructions are, of course, the result of abbreviation from,

You must so act as (one acts) to win approbation;

He is such a fool as (one would be) to believe the story.

2. In the sentence,

He has *to leave* in an hour;

the infinitive *to leave* is the object of the verb *has*. This is no doubt an extension of such constructions as,

We have to perform a duty;

and this is itself a transformation of,

We have a duty to perform.

3. In the sentence,

He is *to arrive* to-morrow (297);

the infinitive *to arrive* completes *is* and has *He* for subject (235).

And in the sentences,

He does not know when *to go*;

Make up your mind which *to take*;

we have an abbreviation of the foregoing construction; thus,

He does not know when (he is) to go;

Make up your mind which (you are) to take.

4. In the sentences,

You had better *be* careful;

I had as soon (or, as lief) *go* as stay;

the infinitives *be* and *go* are objects of the verb *had*, which is in the past subjunctive; the meaning being,

You should hold (or regard) being careful a better thing than not being careful;

and so on.

5. In the sentences,

To tell the truth I am wrong;

Not *to keep* you in suspense, he is in prison;

the infinitives *To tell* and *to keep* are sentence adverbs (250).

6. In the sentences,

How, not *know* your own friends?

She *ask* my pardon, poor woman!

the infinitives *know* and *ask* are exclamatory.

Words like *She*, in such constructions, may be described as the subjects of infinitives in exclamation. And such exclamations may be regarded as exclamatory sentences which are undeveloped, owing to strong emotion. Thus, for example,

Is she to ask my pardon, poor woman!

XII. INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLE CONSTRUCTIONS

300. Interchangeable Constructions.—Both after a verb and after a preposition, the constructions of the objective with the infinitive, of an objective case modified by an imperfect participle, and of a possessive modifying a gerund, are to a certain extent interchangeable. Thus, for example, the sentences,

I saw *him get* down from his horse;

I saw *him getting* down from his horse;

I saw *his getting* down from his horse;

are nearly equivalent, and the question sometimes arises as to which should be preferred. There are

cases where all three may be defended as equally proper. As a general rule, however, the possessive with the gerund is now preferred by the best writers when the notion the gerund represents is emphatic and when it is proper or possible to use a possessive; thus, for example,

I did not go, on account of *your* (or *John's*) *being* late.

When, however, the reference is to the person or thing performing the action, the objective case with the participle is used; thus,

He saw *me running* home.

And when the attention is equally divided between the doer of the action and the action itself, the objective with the infinitive (239 [c]) is used; thus,

I watched *him enter* the house;

We heard *him close* the door.

XIII. THE PARTICIPLE WITH THE NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE

301. Value of Nominative Absolute with Participle.—

As already pointed out, the noun and the participle in the absolute construction (114) express some accompanying circumstance or condition of the action and are generally the equivalent of an adverbial clause; thus, for example, the sentences,

The teacher absenting himself, there was no school;

This said, he sat down;

are equivalent to

As the teacher absented himself, there was no school;

When he had said this, he sat down.

And, as in the case of adverbial clauses (278), the absolute construction is sometimes descriptive co-ordinate; thus,

He left for the Continent, all his family accompanying him.

302. The Unrelated Participle.—Sometimes, also, especially in certain constructions in common use, the noun or pronoun which the participle should modify is

unexpressed, and the participle is then used absolutely; for example:

(We) *Talking* of failures, there is pretty sure to be another soon;

(We) *Supposing* him to be guilty, how can he be punished?

In such expressions the participle is sometimes known as the *unrelated* participle. In constructions of this nature, the participial value is generally weakened to some extent. In some expressions, indeed, it has become weakened to such a degree that it may be considered as a mere preposition (263); for example:

Considering his age, he is extremely active;

To run away from the Jew, I should be ruled by the fiend, who, *saving* your reverence, is the devil himself.

303. Nominative Absolute with Infinitive.—Instead of being modified by a participle the noun or pronoun in the nominative absolute is sometimes followed by an infinitive; for example:

We intend to hold a concert, *the proceeds to be devoted to charity*.

In this sentence *the proceeds to be devoted to charity* is the equivalent of an additional clause, "and the proceeds will be devoted to charity." The infinitive *to be devoted* is here adjectival and is used in a future sense.

XIV. IDIOMATIC USES OF THE PARTICIPLE

304. Idiomatic Uses.—An idiomatic use of the imperfect participle in the appositive relation (243 [2]), occurs in such sentences as,

Leaping from his horse, he came to me at once;

Rising from his chair, he went over to the table;

when the real meaning would require *having leaped* and *having risen*. This idiom is, however, seldom found in colloquial English; thus, for example, the spoken form of the above sentence would be:

He leaped from his horse and (then) came to me at once;

He rose from his chair, and (then) went over to the table.

Again in such a sentence as,

The river burst its banks, *devastating* all the country;
we have an appositive participle (294 [2]) similarly used;
for, although the construction seems to make the acts
of bursting and devastating contemporaneous, the burst-
ing precedes; so that *devastating*, etc., is logically
equivalent to "and then devastated," etc.

EXERCISE 132

*Explain the constructions of the italicized expressions
in the following sentences:*

1. The lark has *to sing* because he has a glad heart.
2. *Taking* everything into account, he has done very well.
3. We were very *tired* when we reached our destination.
4. He is *to be married* very soon, I believe.
5. I bequeath to my wife all my goods and movables; she
to be my principal executor.
6. *To look* at him you would think he was honest.
7. One hardly knows whether *to speak* to him or not.
8. *Dashing* across the bridge he reached the other shore
in safety.
9. We did not know of your *being* in town until yesterday.
10. Just *to think* of your making a mistake like that.

XV. FORMS OF ADVERBS

305. Common Forms for Adjectives and Adverbs.—

Not a few adjectives are used as adverbs, without any
change of form (257), as,

much, most, all, ill, fast, hard, sore.

Some such adjectives take also the suffix *ly*, there
being occasionally some difference of meaning between
the two forms; thus,

most, mostly; hard, hardly; sore, sorely; late, lately.

But usage is capricious, for we say, for example,
(there being no difference of meaning):

to speak <i>loud</i> ,	BUT	to shout <i>loudly</i> ;
to serve a man <i>right</i> ,	"	to judge or conclude <i>rightly</i> ;
to live <i>close</i> to me;	"	to be <i>closely</i> confined.

In poetry especially, the use of the adjective form as the adverb is very common; thus, for example,

The birds sang *clear*; The listener *scarce* might know;
Soft replied the flute; The furrow followed *free*.

Such constructions, however (as in the last example), shade off into those in which the modifying word may be valued as an adjective (294).

XVI. INTERJECTIONAL PHRASES AND SENTENCES

306. Function of Interjectional Phrases and Sentences.

—For the sake of stimulating attention, or of giving force and impressiveness to what we say, or of softening what might seem too positive or blunt, or for other such purposes, we are apt in familiar colloquial style to *interject* into our sentences little sentences and phrases which stand in no grammatical connection with our sentences, and which are also like interjections in that their chief purpose is to intimate our states of feeling. Examples are:

you know; you see; I tell you; I declare or fancy;
 to be sure; by your leave.

We may call them, then, *interjectional* phrases and sentences.

Such phrases and sentences, we have already seen (250), shade off into modal adverbs, which are more or less closely connected with the sentences where they are found, and which show the way in which the thought is conceived by the speaker.

XVII. THE CONJUNCTION: SPECIAL USES AND MEANINGS

In addition to the ordinary uses of the subordinative and co-ordinative conjunctions, the following require special notice:

307. Conjunctions Joining Sentences or Paragraphs.—

In the constructions already considered (Chapter XII),

conjunctions have been used to join words, phrases, and clauses in the same sentence. But some of the co-ordinative conjunctions, as *and*, *or*, *nor*, *but*, *for*, are often formally (not logically) detached from the preceding context, and stand at the beginning of a sentence or a paragraph, as, for instance, in this very sentence; so that the relation they show is looser and more comprehensive than when they formally connect clauses.

308. **Correlatives.**—As we have also seen (268), the relations between clauses are sometimes shown by correlative conjunctions; thus, for example,

Both he *and* I will go; *Either* he *or* I will go.

These correlatives are more emphatic than the single conjunctions. The first in a pair leads us to expect the second, and is, as it were, an outside prop to strengthen the relation. Other correlatives are:

not only—but (or, but also); neither—nor;
though (or, although)—yet (or, still);
if—then; whether—or.

When *not only—but* (or, *but also*) is used, the second statement is more important than the first; *both—and*, however, simply emphasizes the co-ordination.

Owing to the fact that *neither—nor* (*n-* neg.) is the negative of *either—or*, the following are equivalent in meaning:

I knew *neither* the man *nor* the woman;

I did *not* know *either* the man *or* the woman;

I did *not* know the man, *and* I did *not* know the woman;

for, when we deny alternatives separately, we logically deny the affirmative statements. Hence, *nor* is used for *and not*, and we have such mixed copulative and alternative co-ordination as is seen in the following examples:

John was *not* there; *nor* was James;

“ “ “ “ *neither* was James;

“ “ “ “ *and neither* was James;

“ “ “ “ *and James was not either.*

309. Condition and Concession.—Some conjunctions and conjunction phrases express condition along with other relations; thus, for example:

Come in; *otherwise* (or, colloquial) you will get wet;
If (or, *Even if*) I went wrong, I have a good excuse;
 He will fail *whether* he does it or not;
 He acts *as if* (or, *though*) he were the king;
 He is richer *than if* he had gone to the Klondike.

Here, besides condition, *otherwise* signifies that the second clause is the result of the non-observance of the command in the first, its meaning being "for, if you do not come in"; *if* expresses concession; *whether—or*, an alternative; and *as if*, *as though*, *than if*, comparison.

310. For, because.—The co-ordinative conjunction *for* properly states the logical ground for a preceding statement, and the connection it makes is sometimes so loose that the *for*-clause seems an afterthought. The subordinative conjunction *because* introduces a clause which expresses the cause of what is predicated of the subject in its principal clause; so that it is a causal adverb clause. Sometimes, however, *for* and *because* are interchangeable; but there are cases in which *for* only should be used. Examples of the uses of these words are:

The soil is rich; *for* (not, *because*) the vegetation is rank;
 The vegetation is rank; *because* (or, *for*) the soil is rich.

311. Whether—or.—The word *whether* is a co-ordinative, correlative conjunction when it helps to connect principal interrogative clauses; thus,

Whether will you go or stay?

but it is subordinative, in alternative conditional or in dependent interrogative clauses; thus,

I will go *whether* you go or stay;
 I will ask him *whether* (or, *if*) he will go;

although no interrogative word is used in the direct question. The conjunction *or* is, of course, co-ordinative in both constructions.

312. The alternative *or* is sometimes used to signify that there is only a verbal alternative—that the terms are synonymous; thus, for example:

The premier, *or* chief of the cabinet, opened the fair;
The buffalo, *or* bison, is now almost extinct.

313. *But*, which, as we have seen (273 [3]), was originally a preposition, may sometimes (owing to the omission of *that*) be valued as a subordinative conjunction; thus, for example,

It never rains *but* (=“if not”) it pours;
Perdition catch my soul *but* (=“if not”) I do love thee.

314. *Now, well*.—These are sometimes used like copulative co-ordinative conjunctions to introduce a new statement; *now*, as an explanation of one preceding; and *well*, as a commentary on it, expressive also of some feeling,—so that it is somewhat interjectional; thus, for example:

Then cried they all again, saying, “Not this man, but Barabbas.” *Now*, Barabbas was a robber;
You have come, have you? *Well*, it is more than I expected.

CHAPTER XV

CHANGES IN WORDS

A. CHANGES IN SOUND AND IN FORM

315. Tendencies Toward Changes.—There is a strong tendency for words to undergo changes in sound from age to age. It is probable that differences of climate affect our vocal organs and influence our speech to some extent; but there is an influence at work more important than this. The sounds of words are learned, especially in childhood, by imitation. If people always spoke distinctly, and if we always heard correctly and imitated exactly, our pronunciation would undergo very little change. But owing to the fact that we usually try to do everything in the easiest and shortest way possible, we are often careless in our speech, and, on the other hand, we often imitate inexactly what we hear; so that changes are always creeping into our pronunciation. So great, indeed, are the differences between our sounds and those even of the time of Queen Elizabeth, not to speak of the time of King Alfred, that, if one of Shakespeare's plays were now acted with the pronunciation current in his time, it would be difficult, if not impossible, for us to understand it.

This tendency to change is kept in check by the necessity for making ourselves understood, and by the tendency to conform to the speech of those around us. Besides this, at the present day easier means of travel promotes free intercourse among people, and this favours uniformity; the use of dictionaries also, as well as the influence of education, tends to keep the pronunciation fixed. Tendencies toward change in

the written form of words are held in check by the influence of literary standards. But though changes in the sound and the form of words do not take place readily now, important changes took place in the earlier periods of the development of the language, and a consideration of some of these changes will serve to illustrate the most important influences which tend to affect the sound and the form of words.

Changes in both sound and form may be classified under three heads, according to the causes which have contributed to produce them, namely, changes due to the influence (1) of stress, (2) of association, (3) of analogy.

I. CHANGES DUE TO STRESS

As already pointed out (91), there are two varieties of stress,—*word stress*, or accent, and *sentence stress*, or emphasis.

316. Word Stress.—In the English language word stress generally falls upon the root syllable of the word; thus,

encouráge; *entertainmént*; *undergó*;

and words introduced from foreign languages tend to follow the English method; thus we have,

úsage < Fr. *usagé*; *balcóny* < Ital. *balcóne*; *riches* < Fr. *richesse*.

In a stressed syllable, an original long sound is apt to become short when the length of the word is increased. Examples are:

throttle < throat-le; bonfire < bonefire; width < wide-th;
gosling < gooseling.

On the other hand the unstressed parts of words tend to weaken, and in some cases vowels and syllables disappear; thus,

daisy < day's eye; sheriff < shire-reeve; fortnight < fourteen-night; pr. "Wensday" < Wednesday.

317. Sentence Stress.—Sentence stress depends upon the importance of the idea, and so moves freely from one word to another as may be required. Thus, for instance, when we say “I *saw* him,” the *h* is not sounded; whereas in “I saw *him*, but not *her*,” it is sounded. As a result of the additional importance given to certain words by sentence stress we have in some cases a second form; thus in,

too—to; off—of; then—than,

the first word of each pair has been derived from the second as the result of strong sentence stress.

Weakness or absence of sentence stress also leads to important changes. If, for instance, as above, we utter the two breath-groups; “The-word-*the* is-an-adjective,” the unstressed *the* is pronounced *thu*, and the stressed one *thee*. Sounds may even drop out altogether, as, for instance, when we say, *haven’t* for *have not*, *I’d* for *I would*, *I’ll* for *I will*.

II. CHANGES DUE TO ASSOCIATION

318. Assimilation.—Certain other changes in the form and the sound of words are due to the association of sounds. When two different sounds are associated, wherever possible we unconsciously avoid the trouble of changing the position of the organs of speech, and so the sounds are made similar, or are said to undergo **assimilation**.

Thus, for instance, in the word *cats*, voiceless *t* is followed by voiceless *s*, while in the word *dogs* voiced *g* is followed by voiced *s*. So also in the word *looked* (lookt), voiceless *k* is followed by the voiceless *t* sound, whereas in *loved* voiced *v* is followed by voiced *d*. Sometimes when two simple words are combined to form a compound, assimilation may take place, as for

instance in the words *lissom*, *cupboard* (pr. cubbord), and *gossip*, from the O.E. *lithe-some*, *cup-board*, and *God-sib*; and assimilation is also common in the case of the association of prefix and root word; thus,

difference < *dis-ference*; *succession* < *sub-cession*; *allocate* < *ad-locate*; *attend* < *ad-tend*.

Vowel-Mutation.—Vowels also undergo assimilation; thus, for instance, in the older forms *Anglisc* and *Fran-cish*, the *i* of the last syllable has influenced the vowel sound in the syllable preceding, and as a result we have the modern forms *English* (pr. Inglish) and *French*. This change in a stressed vowel, caused by a vowel in the following syllable of the same word, is called **vowel-mutation**. The vowel sounds in the plural forms of certain nouns are due to mutation; for example:

man, men; foot, feet; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; mouse, mice;

but in all of these plurals the second syllable containing the vowel to which mutation was due, has disappeared. Mutation is not now an active principle, but it exercised an important influence in the early history of the language.

Other Changes.—Besides assimilation, other changes are made in associated sounds where we find it difficult or disagreeable to pronounce them together. Here, also, we must look for examples in the earlier stages of the language. Examples are:

wasp < O.E. *waeps*; *gender* < O. Fr. *genre*; *whils-t* < M.E. *whiles*;
bird < O.E. *brid*; *marble* < O. Fr. *marbre*.

III. CHANGES DUE TO ANALOGY

319. Effects of Analogy.—Thus far we have been considering the conditions under which changes take place in the sound and the form of individual words.

Sometimes, however, we find that words undergo changes in sound or form in order to make them similar to other words which belong to the same class, or which are used in a similar way. Changes which take place in words owing to their resemblance, or fancied resemblance, to other words, are said to be due to **analogy** (that is, "resemblance"). For instance, owing to the influence of analogy, all verbs which are now introduced into the English language, form the past tense by the addition of *d*, or *ed*, to the stem, and the tendency is for all nouns now introduced into English to form the plurals by adding *s*.

False Analogy.—Besides classes of words, analogy affects single words also, producing occasionally some curious results, not only in the sounds and the written forms of words, but in their written forms alone. Thus, for example, we have *rhyme*, for *rime*, because *rime* was connected in the mind with *rhythm*; *righteous*, for the older *rightwise* (that is, "wise as to what is right"), because *-eous* is a common ending for adjectives; *sovereign*, for the older *sovran* (Latin, *superanus*, "supreme"), from its association with *reign*; *wormwood* for the O. E. *wermod*, although the word has no connection in meaning with either *worm* or *wood*; the modern form is due to a mere fancied resemblance of the sounds. Changes which are thus due to a mistaken resemblance between words are said to be the result of **false analogy**.

320. Principle of Ease.—If we now consider the various kinds of changes in sound and form, already described, with a view to discover the fundamental cause of all these changes, we find that it is economy of effort, or as it is sometimes called, the **principle of ease**; or, in other words, the tendency to do what is to be done, in the easiest and shortest way possible.

B. CHANGES IN MEANING

321. Importance of Changes in Meaning.—Changes in the meaning of words are not so important in grammar as changes in form. They are, however, important from the point of view of language; and, as we have already seen, there is sometimes an intimate connection between the meaning and the form. We shall, therefore, now consider the chief influences that produce changes in meaning; that is, the substitution of new meanings or the addition of other ones.

322. Contraction, or Specialization.—As a nation advances in civilization, its ideas become more definite, and numerous distinctions have to be made. Hence, not only are additional words needed, but as the number increases, the meaning of each becomes more contracted, or specialized. Thus, for example, *spice*, (originally *species*, “a kind,”) was formerly applied to goods of the same sort or kind, but now usually means a particular “kind” of goods, used for seasoning; so too, *furlong*, originally *furrow long*, is now a definite measure of distance. Compare also the following:

foot, from the length of the human foot; *mile* < Lat. *mille passus*, “a thousand paces”; *acre* < A. S. *æcer*, “a field”; *quart* < Lat. *quartus*, “the fourth part” of a gallon; *gallon* < “O. Fr. *galon*, “a jar.”

This principle is known as **contraction**, or **specialization**: it is by far the most common cause of change in meaning. Other examples are:

pay < Lat. *pacare*, “to pacify”; *corpse* < Lat. *corpus*, “a body”; *starve* < O. E. *steorfan*, “to die.”

323. Extension of Meaning.—But we have also many words that have become more extended in their application. Thus *privilege* originally meant “a private law” or “a law relating to an individual,” and *decimate*, “to select by lot every tenth man for punish-

ment." This principle is known as **extension**, or **generalization**. Other examples are:

legion < Lat. *legion-em*, "a division of a Roman army"; *pomp* < Gr. *pomp-e*, "a solemn religious procession"; *companion* < Fr. *compagnon*; Lat. *com*, "together," and *panis*, "bread"; thus, originally "a mess-mate."

A great many words also become extended in meaning when used in a figurative sense; thus,

He has a fine *taste* for literature;
Duty *spurs* him on;
The white *flower* of a blameless life.

Changes in Objects Represented.—Words change their meanings with a change in the things they denote. Thus, for example, *volume* originally meant "a roll"; for, before the age of printing, the long written sheets of papyrus and like material were rolled up when not in use. So, too, *book* < O. E. *boc*, "beech-tree," the bark being used as paper. Other examples are:

ballot, "a little ball"; *baize*, "bay-coloured coarse cloth";
bugle, "the horn of the 'bugle', or wild ox."

324. Degradation.—Words frequently become degraded in meaning. Sometimes this is due to our desire to palliate the offensiveness or wickedness of what they denote. Thus, for example, *plain* and *ordinary* are often used for "ugly"; and *annexation* for "robbery of territory by a nation." Sometimes, also, the change is due to historical influences. Thus, *villain*, originally "a serf in the villa, or farm, of his Norman master," acquired its present meaning from the low morality attributed to the "villeins." So, too, with,

churl < O. E. *ceorl*, "a rustic"; *boor* < Du. *boer*, "a farmer";
rascal < M. E. (O. Fr.) *raskaille*, "the scrapings"; *knave* < O. E. *cnafa*, "a boy."

325. Improvement.—Less often a word improves in meaning. Thus, for example, *Christian* was at first

a term of reproach used by the people of Antioch. Compare also, *Puritan*, *Methodist*, *Quaker*. Similarly *worship*, "the condition of worth"; *minister*, "a servant"; *generous*, "well-born"; *marshal*, "a stable-master," or "groom," have acquired their present meanings.

EXERCISE 133

With the aid of an etymological dictionary, examine the following words, and note any changes that have taken place in form and meaning:

adder	disaster	kickshaws	runagate
alarm	drawing-room	lamp	sandwich
alligator	dropsy	libel	secure
amidst	dunce	livery	sexton
assassin	ermine	maudlin	sidesman
atone	frontispiece	mob	silhouette
bacon	gadfly	mountebank	silly
bedlam	gazette	newt	sincere
belfry	generous	nickname	smith
blackguard	glimpse	nostril	somersault
bombast	grocer	officious	sound
brat	grove	pagan	stirrup
butcher	handsome	panic	tennis
carnival	hanker	paper	tinsel
carouse	harbinger	pen	topsy-turvy
caterpillar	hawthorn	penthouse	treacle
causeway	heathen	pester	trivial
cloves	heaven	pickaxe	twit
consider	hocus-pocus	poach	urbane
constable	horehound	porpoise	vandal
costermonger	humble-bee	prevaricate	verdigris
coward	humble-pie	proxy	walrus
cravat	hussy	quaint	wassail
crayfish	icicle	racy	wealth
custard	imp	rival	willy-nilly
dandelion	island	rubber	wiseacre
dirge	jeopardy	rummage	woodbine.

CHAPTER XVI

HISTORICAL OUTLINE

• **326. Branches of the Aryan Family.**—As we have seen in the opening chapter, the Germanic (or Teutonic) group of languages, to which English belongs, forms a division of the Aryan, or Indo-European, family, which includes most of the languages of Europe and also certain languages spoken in Asia.

Two branches of the Aryan family belong to Asia, namely, the Indo-Iranian (including the languages of India and Persia), and the Armenian. In the south and west of Europe we have the Hellenic (or Greek), the Albanian (the language of ancient Illyria), the Italic (including the Latin and languages descended from it), and the Celtic; in the north we find the Teutonic, and the Balto-Slavic.

NOTE:—There are several languages spoken in Europe which do not belong to the Aryan family. The most important of these languages are the Turkish, the Magyar or Hungarian, the Lappish, the Finnish, and the Basque.

327. The Teutonic Sub-family.—The Teutonic branch of the Aryan family includes, besides the English, the languages of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark; Germany, Austria, and parts of Switzerland; Holland and Belgium.

The Teutonic branch has three main divisions, as follows:

- I. Gothic (dead).
- II. Norse, or Scandinavian; including Norwegian, Icelandic, Danish, and Swedish.
- III. West Germanic, comprising:
 - (a) Low German; including English, Frisian, North (or Low) German, Dutch, Flemish, and Low Franconian.

- (b) High German, including the language of the German court and standard German literature, as well as the dialects spoken in Austria, Switzerland, and the highlands of Germany.

The English language is, then, more closely related to the Flemish, Dutch, Frisian, and other Low German dialects than to any of the other European languages. The Frisian and English especially are very closely akin.

NOTE:—In the sentence,

“Good butter and good cheese
Is good English and good Fries”;

all the words are both English and Frisian.



Map showing the routes of migration followed by the Teutonic tribes.

328. Differences Between Old English and Modern English.—The dialects spoken by the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes differed very much from the English spoken and written at the present day, so much so that it requires almost as much study to learn to read Old English as to master Latin or any other foreign language. Let us consider some of the most important points of difference.

(a) **Pronunciation.**—In the first place the Anglo-Saxons living in different parts of England spoke a large number of **dialects**, dialects so different that it would have been difficult, if not altogether impossible, for a man in passing from one part of the country to another, to make himself understood. In Modern English, dialects do indeed exist, but not to such a marked extent as in Old English, and though there may be differences in pronunciation in different English-speaking countries, we have **common literary standards** to which, in general, we all endeavour to conform.

Several influences have been at work to bring about this uniformity. The union of the different divisions of the Anglo-Saxons in one nation helped, of course, to prepare the way for a common tongue. The introduction of printing in the fifteenth century (1471) did more than anything else to create a national literary language, and with the publication of Dr. Johnson's dictionary in 1755, a standard for both spelling and pronunciation was established. Within the last hundred years the influences of commerce and of rapid communication and transit have helped to prevent wide differences in pronunciation among English-speaking peoples.

(b) **Structure.**—In the second place, Old English differed from Modern English in structure. In Old English the relations of words to other words in the sentence, as well as certain changes in their meaning,

were expressed by changes in the forms of the words themselves. These changes in form are known as **inflections**. In Modern English, on the other hand, changes in meaning and relation are generally shown either by the use of separate words or by the position of the words in the sentence. Anglo-Saxon is therefore said to be a **synthetic** language, while Modern English is an **analytic** language.

NOTE:—*Synthetic* has the sense of "compact," "built up." It comes from *synthesis*, which means "a putting together." Languages such as Latin, Greek, and Anglo-Saxon, are said to be synthetic, because in these languages changes in meaning and relation are generally shown by "building up" words by the addition of endings. *Analytic*, on the other hand, means "separated into parts." It comes from *analysis*, which means "a resolving into parts," and languages are said to be analytic when changes in meaning and relation are shown by separate words instead of by the building up of words by means of endings.

All synthetic languages tend in the course of time to become analytic; but in the case of the Anglo-Saxon the change was hastened by the conquest of England in the eighth century by the Danes, and in the eleventh century by the Normans. The conflict of the Anglo-Saxon language with the language of the invaders in both cases resulted in the dropping of endings and in other modifications in the forms of words.

(c) **Vocabulary**.—In the third place, Old English was **pure in vocabulary**, that is, it contained very few words borrowed from other languages. Modern English, on the other hand, contains a very great number of foreign words, and it is therefore said to be **composite in vocabulary**. If we were to examine the words in a dictionary we should find that only about twenty-eight per cent. are of Anglo-Saxon origin, while about fifty-six per cent. are of Latin origin and about sixteen per cent. are derived from other languages. In our actual written and spoken English, however, we use a much

larger proportion of Anglo-Saxon words. The following table will show the proportion of Anglo-Saxon words that are used by some of our standard authors:

The English Bible.....	96%
Chaucer.....	93%
Shakespeare.....	90%
Tennyson.....	88%
Spenser.....	86%
Milton.....	82%
Macaulay.....	75%
Pope.....	66%
Gibbon.....	60%

We may now sum up the main differences between Old English and Modern English as follows:

Old English was composed of different dialects, was synthetic in structure, and had few foreign words in its vocabulary. Modern English possesses common standards of spelling and pronunciation, is analytic in structure, and its vocabulary is composite.

329. Main Periods of Development.—The development of the English language from Anglo-Saxon times to the present day falls into three main periods corresponding to three periods in English history:

1. Old English, or Anglo-Saxon Period.—From the Anglo-Saxon settlement to the Norman Conquest (449-1066, or, approximately, 500-1000).

2. Middle English Period.—From the Norman invasion to the beginning of the Tudor Period (1066-1485, or, approximately, 1100-1500).

3. Modern English Period.—From the beginning of the Tudor Period to the present day (1485-19—, or, approximately, 1500-19—).

330. Old English Period: Dialects.—Throughout this period three main dialects existed in England, the

Northumbrian in the north, the Mercian in the centre, and the West Saxon in the south. Of these dialects, Northumbrian was the first to become a literary language. Caedmon, our first Christian poet (670 A.D.), and Bede, our first historian (735 A.D.), wrote in Northumbrian.

But the overthrow of Northumbria toward the end of the seventh century, put an end to further literary production. During the reign of Alfred the Great (871-901), however, a considerable body of literature was produced in the West Saxon dialect.

Structure.—As already stated (328), Old English was a synthetic language. By the close of the Old English period, however, we find that in the Northumbrian dialect, inflections had already begun to break down and disappear, as a result, no doubt, of contact with the Danish dialects. The West Saxon dialect, however, still retained its inflections, while the Mercian took a middle course. Old English syntax was, in the main, Teutonic, the order of the words in prose being almost that of Modern German. But the sentences were awkwardly combined, proportion and unity were lacking, and conjunctions were often omitted.

Vocabulary.—During the Old English period a number of new words were added to the vocabulary. These were chiefly geographical names, of Celtic, Latin, or Danish origin, as for example,

Thames, Avon, (*Celtic*); Stratford, Winchester, (*Latin*);
Whitby, Norwich, (*Danish*).

But a few other words also found their way into the language from various sources. Examples are:

Celtic: basket, cradle, crock, pan, dagger.

Latin: lake, mile, port, altar, candle.

Danish: skin, bask, dregs, swain.

331. Middle English Period.—For more than a century after the Norman Conquest two distinct languages were spoken in England, the Norman-French on the one hand, and the different dialects of the Anglo-Saxon, on the other. During this period the Anglo-Saxons and the Normans did not mingle, and the Anglo-Saxons retained their own language. But as they were a conquered people, and as they no longer had common literary standards, there was a strong tendency for the differences of dialect to become more marked.

332. English Becomes the National Language.—During the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries the English and Normans gradually became fused into one people, or rather, the Normans were absorbed into the English people, and English finally became the national language. There were several reasons for this predominance of the English language over the Norman. The number of Normans who settled in England was really small, and they made no attempt to displace English as the spoken language. Moreover, the policy of William the Conqueror and his successors was to conciliate the English. Political and social events, notably the loss of Normandy in 1206, also helped to lessen the importance of French influence and increase that of English.

333. Three Dialects.—During the first part of the Middle English period we find the same three main dialects as in Old English, but it is simpler to classify them as Southern (West Saxon and Kentish), Northern (Northumbrian), and Midland (Mercian).

NOTE:—The West Saxon dialect is still spoken in a modified form in Southern England, and, within recent years it has appeared in literature in the Dorsetshire poems of William Barnes. The following is an illustration:

As I wer readin ov a stwone
 In Grenley church-yard all alwone,
 A little maid ran up, wi pride,
 To zee me there, an' push'd a-zide
 A bunch o' bennets that did hide
 A verse her father, as she zaïd,
 Put up above her mother's head,
 To tell how much he loved her.

The verse wer short, but very good,
 I stood an' larn'd en where I stood:—
 "Mid God, dear Meary, gi'e me greâce
 To vind lik' thee, a better pleâce,
 Where I woonce mwore mid zee thy feâce;
 An' bring thy children up to know
 His word, that they mid come an' show
 Thy soul how much I lov'd thee."

Lowland Scotch is the modern representative of the Northern dialect, which is seen at its best in the poems of Burns. Practically the same dialect is still spoken in Northern England. Specimens of it, also, we have in Tennyson's *Northern Farmer*, *The Northern Cobbler*, and a few of his other poems. These, however, are rather experiments than serious attempts at a revival of the dialect.

334. Supremacy of the Midland Dialect.—Modern English is the descendant of the Midland dialect, which was spoken between the Humber and the Thames. This dialect owes its supremacy to the fact, above all others, that it was the language spoken in London, the commercial and political centre of England. This dialect was also the speech of the district in which were situated the two great universities of Oxford and Cambridge, with their powerful linguistic influences. In its grammatical character, also, it was a compromise between the Northern and the Southern dialects; and as men were gathered together in London from all parts of England, it was further modified by their intercourse. It was thus well fitted to become the common language of the nation. In it, too, were written the beginnings of Modern English literature. In it Chaucer wrote his *Canterbury Tales*, and into it Wyclif translated the Bible.

The Midland dialect, however, did not at once become the literary language of the whole nation. From the time of Chaucer until the union of England and Scotland under King James, there were really two standards in the island; the English of Edinburgh for the Scotch, and the English of London for the English.

335. Decay of Inflectional Endings.—We have seen that at the time of the Norman Conquest, inflections had begun to disappear in some parts of England, owing to the absence of literary standards during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. The decay of inflectional endings continued unchecked, and the change in grammatical structure was greatly accelerated owing to the conflict of the English and French languages during the next two centuries. By the end of the fourteenth century few of the old English inflections survived, and in its general grammatical structure the language had already assumed its present form.

336. Introduction of Norman-French Words.—During the thirteenth century Norman-French words began to be introduced, and during the last part of the Middle English period, French words, both Norman and Parisian, were used in large numbers. Most of the loan-words from the Norman-French relate to the church, government, feudalism, war, or to new things introduced by the Normans. Examples are:

mayor, tenant, attorney, trumpet, saint, nephew, forest, mutton.

337. Loss of Power of Forming Compounds.—But if the English language gained by the introduction of so many Norman-French words during that period, it lost ground in another, very important, respect. Old English possessed to a large degree the power of forming self-explaining descriptive compounds; thus, for examples, it had hundreds of words such as,

tree-wright—carpenter
flesh-monger—butcher
book-house—library
star-craft—astronomy

aftercomer—descendant
foreshewer—prophet
sourdough—leaven
foretalk—preface.

During the fourteenth century many of these compounds were replaced by words taken from the French, and since that time very few new Anglo-Saxon compounds have been formed. In Old English, also, prefixes were used very freely to express certain modifications in the meanings of words, but owing to Norman-French influence in the fourteenth century the use of the Anglo-Saxon prefixes became practically restricted to certain words.

338. Modern English Period.—During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries (generally known as the Elizabethan Period), the use of the few inflections that remained was still unsettled. Some inflected forms were then in use which we have since discarded, and some were discarded which we have revived. In Elizabethan literature, the greatest freedom was permitted in the use of the same words as different parts of speech; and in the structure of the sentence nearly every variety of apparent grammatical inaccuracy is met with. There was also considerable laxity in the spelling of words, and important changes took place in pronunciation.

Two events occurred about the beginning of the Modern English period which had a marked effect upon the English language, especially upon its vocabulary, namely, the Introduction of Printing, and the Revival of Learning.

339. Introduction of Printing.—In 1471 Caxton introduced the art of printing from Flanders. During his lifetime his press produced, in all, sixty-eight different works, and after his death, through the extension of

printing, books were multiplied very rapidly. The introduction of printing did more than anything else to promote uniformity and to set up a common standard of speech.

340. Revival of Learning.—The fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were marked by a revival of the study of the works of the great writers of Greece and Rome. This Revival of Learning, (or New Learning, as it was called,) was at first confined to Italy, and especially to Florence, but it soon spread to France and Germany, and finally to England, where it flourished during the sixteenth century.

As a result of the New Learning, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the English language was strongly affected by the influence of Latin and Greek; the style of Latin and Greek authors was imitated, and many words of classical origin came into use at the time.

From the Latin loan-words of this period (estimated at 2,400) and to a less extent from the Greek, we have an immense number of derivatives. From one hundred and fifty Greek and Latin root words, for example, it has been calculated that we have nearly thirteen thousand words.

341. Seventeenth Century English.—The seventeenth century is an important period in the development of the English language, because it was during this period that the language finally became settled in its present form. This result was due partly to the influence of literary standards such as the English Bible, but chiefly to the imitation of French models, which were characterized by a clearness and precision which had been hitherto lacking in English syntax.

342. Later Modern English.—Little change has taken place in the structure of the English language since the beginning of the eighteenth century. On account of the influence of literary standards the syntax has practically remained the same, and the tendency has been in the direction of less freedom and greater perfection of form. The publication of dictionaries in the eighteenth century had the effect of promoting uniformity both in the spelling and in the pronunciation of English words.

Modern English is especially remarkable for the immense number of additions to its vocabulary. It is estimated that our vocabulary contains at the present time about a quarter of a million of words, and more than half of these have come into use since the middle of the nineteenth century. These additions are due to various influences, such as travel, commerce, war, literature, science, and art.

During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, for example, the expansion of the British Empire and the extension of British commerce, resulted in the introduction of words from nearly all of the languages spoken in different parts of the world. Examples are:

alcohol (<i>Arabic</i>)	kangaroo (<i>Australian</i>)
amen (<i>Hebrew</i>)	mammoth (<i>Tartar</i>)
bamboo (<i>Malay</i>)	moccasin (<i>North American Indian</i>)
canary (<i>African</i>)	ottoman (<i>Turkish</i>)
cocoa (<i>Portuguese</i>)	shawl (<i>Persian</i>)
cork (<i>Spanish</i>)	sugar (<i>Hindu</i>)
czar (<i>Russian</i>)	tea (<i>Chinese</i>).

During the past hundred years also the progress of scientific discovery has resulted in the addition of many thousands of new words, principally technical terms, to the English vocabulary. Most of these words are of Latin or Greek origin.

Examples are:

antitoxin, appendicitis, bicycle, cablegram, dynamite, phonograph, plebiscite, zoology.

343. Reference Table of Important Historical Events.—

55 (B.C.)-410 (A.D.)	Roman occupation of Britain.
449-625	Britain settled by the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes.
597	St. Augustine lands in Kent; Christianity introduced.
871-901	Reign of Alfred the Great.
787-1042	Britain invaded by the Northmen, or Danes. Danish kings occupy the throne of England (1017-1042).
1066	Battle of Hastings. England conquered by the Normans.
1328-1400	Life of Chaucer.
1453	Capture of Constantinople by the Turks.
1471	Introduction of Printing.
1564-1616	Life of Shakespeare.
1755	Johnson's Dictionary published.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES

- I. Pansies, Lilies, Kingcups, Daisies,
Let them live upon their praises;
Long as there's a sun that sets,
Primroses will have their glory;
- 5 Long as there are Violets,
They will have a place in story;
There's a flower that shall be mine,—
'Tis the little Celandine.

1. *Parse* Pansies, Violets, Celandine.
2. *Compare* their, l. 2, and mine, l. 7, as to function.
3. *Justify the use of the auxiliaries*, will, l. 4, and shall, l. 7.
4. *Select the subordinate clauses and state the kind and relation of each.*

- II. The venerable Bede was called "The Father of English Prose." He translated the Gospel of St. John into English, so that the uneducated read it. He worked on this translation until the last day of his life. At
- 5 last, when evening came, he closed his eyes in weariness. The young man said, "There is yet one sentence, dear master."

"Take your pen and write quickly," said Bede.

"Now it is finished," said the youth.

- 10 "Yes, it is finished," answered Bede.

He turned to the altar, chanted a few words of praise to God, and closed his eyes for ever.

1. *Classify the verbs in the foregoing passage as transitive or intransitive.*
2. "venerable Bede," l. 1; "the last day," l. 4; "dear master," ll. 6-7.

State whether the adjectives are limiting or descriptive.

3. *Rewrite the passage using indirect narration throughout.*

III. By this the northern wagoner *had set*

His sevenfold team behind the steadfast star
That was in ocean wave yet never wet,

- But firm *is fixt*, and sendeth light from far
5 To all that in the wide deep *wandering are*;

And cheerful chanticleer with his note shrill
Had warned once that Phœbus' fiery car

In haste *was mounting* up the eastern hill
Full envious that night so long his room *did fill*.

1. *Classify the italicized verb phrases.*
2. *Analyse the passage so as to show the clauses of which it is composed.*

IV. I wonder exceedingly if I *have done* anything at all good! And who can tell me, and why *should I wish* to know? In so little a while I and the English language and the bones of my descendants *will have ceased* to be a

- 5 memory. And yet—and yet—one *would like* to leave an image for a few years upon men's minds—for fun.

1. *State the function of each of the italicized verb phrases.*
2. *Parse if, 1. 1; yet, 1. 5, and one, 1. 5.*

V. His praise, ye winds, that from four quarters blow,
Breathe soft or loud; and wave your tops, ye pines,
With every plant, in sign of worship wave.

Fountains, and ye that warble, as ye flow,

- 5 Melodious murmurs, warbling *tune* his praise.

Hail, universal Lord! Be bounteous still

To give us only good; and if the night

Have gather'd aught of evil, or conceal'd,

Disperse it, as now light *dispels* the dark.

1. *State the mood of each of the italicized verbs.*
2. *Parse ye, lines 1, and 4.*
3. *Distinguish between the values of the clauses "as ye flow," 1. 4, and "as now light dispels the dark"; line 9.*
4. *State the case and relation of praise, 1. 1; Fountains, 1. 4; murmurs, 1. 5.*

VI. I care not, Fortune, what you me deny;
 You cannot rob me of free Nature's grace;
 You cannot *shut* the windows of the sky
 Through which Aurora shows her *brightening* face;

5 You cannot bar my constant feet *to trace*
 The woods and lawns, by *living* stream at eve;
 Let health my nerves and finer fibres *brace*,
 And I their toys to the great children leave;
 Of fancy, reason, virtue, naught can me bereave.

1. *Select the subordinate clauses and state the kind and relation.*

2. *Show the logical relation between "Let health my nerves and finer fibres brace," l. 7, and "I their toys to the great children leave"; l. 8.*

3. *Parse the pronoun me in lines 1, 2, and 9.*

4. *Parse the italicized words.*

VII. Blessings *be* with them, and eternal praise,
 Who *gave* us nobler loves and nobler cares—
 The Poets, who on earth *have made* us heirs
 Of truth and pure delight by heavenly lays!

5 Oh! *might* my name *be numbered* among theirs,
 Then gladly *would* I *end* my mortal days.

1. *Parse the italicized verbs.*

2. *State the case and relation of praise, l. 1; us, l. 2; Poets, l. 3; heirs, l. 3; theirs, l. 5.*

3. *Select the subordinate clauses and state the kind and relation of each.*

VIII. *It is a touch of instinct, I suppose, that makes it more delightful to fish in the most insignificant of free streams than a carefully stocked and preserved pond where the fish are brought up by hand and fed on minced liver.*

5 *There is a wilding strain in our blood that all the civilization in the world will not eradicate. I never knew a real boy,—or for that matter, a girl worth knowing—who would not rather climb a tree any day than walk up a golden stairway.*

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1. *Parse the italicized expressions.*
2. *Select the adjective clauses and state whether they are limiting or descriptive.*

IX. It is a beauteous evening, calm and free;
 The holy time is quiet as a nun
 Breathless with adoration; the broad sun
 Is sinking down in its tranquillity;
 5 The gentleness of heaven is on the sea.
 Listen! the mighty Being is awake,
 And doth with his eternal motion make
 A sound like *thunder*—everlastingly.
 Dear *child*, dear girl, that walkest with me here,
 10 If thou appear'st untouched by solemn thought,
 Thy nature is not therefore less divine.
 Thou liest in *Abraham's* bosom all the *year*,
 And worshipp'st at the Temple's inner shrine,
God being with thee when we know it not.

1. *Parse the italicized nouns.*
2. *Distinguish between the uses of it in ll. 1 and 14.*
3. *Compare as to relation, the adjectives beauteous, l. 1; Breathless, l. 3; untouched, l. 10.*
4. *Appear'st, l. 10. Why is the indicative used here rather than the subjunctive?*

X. Devonshire Terrace,

Friday Evening, Oct. 17, 1845.

My Dear Macready,—You once—*only* once—gave the world assurance of a waistcoat. You wore it, sir, I
 5 *think*, in “Money.” It was a remarkable and precious waistcoat, *wherein* certain broad stripes of blue or purple disported themselves as by a combination of extraordinary circumstances, too happy to occur again. I have seen it on your manly chest in private
 10 life. I saw it, sir, I think, *the other day*, in the cold light of morning—with feelings easier to be imagined *than described*. Mr. Macready, sir, are you a father? If so, lend me that waistcoat for five minutes. I am

- bidden to a wedding, and my artist cannot, *I find*
 15 (how should he?) imagine such a waistcoat. Let me show it to him as a sample of my tastes and wishes; and—ha, ha, ha, ha!—eclipse the bridegroom!

I will send a trusty messenger at half-past nine *precisely*, in the morning. He is sworn to secrecy. He
 20 durst not *for his life* betray us, or swells in ambuscade would have the waistcoat at the cost of his heart's blood.—Thine,

THE UNWAISTCOATED ONE. (Charles Dickens)

1. *Parse the italicized expressions.*
2. *Classify the verb phrases* have seen, l. 9; am bidden, ll. 13-14; will send, l. 18; would have, l. 21.
3. "As a sample," l. 16. *Explain the value of as.*

XI. In the German stories we read *how* men sell themselves to—a certain Personage, and that Personage cheats them. He gives *them* wealth; *yes*, but the gold pieces turn into worthless leaves. He sets them be-
 5 fore splendid banquets; *yes*, and what an awful grin that black footman has who lifts *up* the dish cover; and don't you smell a peculiar sulphurous odour in his dish? *Faugh!* take it away. I can't eat. He promises them splendours and triumphs. The conqueror's car rolls
 10 glittering through the city, the multitude shout and huzza. Drive on, coachman. Yes, but who is that *hanging* on behind the carriage? Is this the reward of eloquence, talents, industry? Is this the end of a life of labour?

1. *Parse the italicized words.*
2. "The multitude shout," l. 10. *Comment on the agreement of subject and verb.*
3. *Classify the italicized adjectival expressions in the following:* "a certain Personage," l. 2; "that black footman," l. 6; "the dish cover," l. 6; "a sulphurous odour in his dish," l. 7; "The conqueror's car rolls glittering through the city," l. 9; "the reward of eloquence," ll. 12-13.

- XII. We *uncommiserate* pass into the night
 From the loud banquet, and *departing* leave
 A tremor in men's memories, faint and sweet
 And frail as music. Features of our face,
 5 The tones of the voice, the touch of the loved hand,
 Perish and vanish *one by one* from earth.
Meanwhile within the hall of song, the multitude
 Applauds the new performer. One, *perchance*,
 One ultimate survivor lingers on,
 10 And smiles, and to his ancient heart recalls
 The long-forgotten. Ere the morrow die,
 He *too, returning*, through the curtain comes,
 And the new age forgets us, and goes on.

1. Parse the italicized words.

2. "The multitude applauds," ll. 7-8. Comment on the agreement of subject and verb.

3. Explain the difference in the verb forms, die, l. 11, and comes, l. 12.

4. State whether the following adjectives are limiting or descriptive as here used,—loud, l. 2; new, l. 8; ultimate, l. 9; ancient, l. 10.

- XIII. Let us not be too much *acquainted*. I would have a man *enter* his house through a hall *filled* with heroic and *sacred* sculptures that he might not want the hint of tranquillity and self-poise. We should meet each
 5 morning as from foreign countries, and *spending* the day together, should depart at night as into foreign countries. In all things I would have the island of man inviolate. Let us *sit* apart as gods, *talking* from peak to peak all round Olympus. It is easy to *push*
 10 this deference to a Chinese etiquette; but coolness and absence of heat and haste indicate fine qualities. A gentleman makes no noise; a lady is serene.

1. Show what is expressed by each of the verb phrases, would have, l. 1; might want, l. 3; should meet, l. 4.

2. *Parse the italicized words.*

3. "As from foreign countries," l. 5; "as gods," l. 8.

Show the function of as in these expressions.

XIV. There was a time when meadow, grove, and stream,
The earth, and every common sight,
To me did seem

Apparelled in celestial light,

5 The glory and the freshness of a dream.

It is not now as it hath been of yore;—

Turn wheresoe'er I may,

By night or day,

The things which I have seen I now can see no more.

1. *State the case and relation of time, l. 1; glory, l. 5; things, l. 9.*

2. *Select the subordinate clauses and state the kind and relation of each.*

3. *Parse of yore, l. 6; no more, l. 9.*

4. *State the function of each of the verb phrases, did seem, l. 3; hath been, l. 6.*

XV. Sweet Highland girl, a very shower

Of beauty is thy earthly dower;

Twice seven consenting years have shed

Their utmost bounty on thy head;

5 And these gray rocks, that household lawn,

Those trees, a veil just half withdrawn,

This fall of water that doth make

A murmur near the silent lake,

This little bay, a quiet road

10 That holds in shelter thy abode,

In truth together ye do seem

Like something fashioned in a dream,

Such forms as from their covert peep

When earthly cares are laid asleep.

1. *State the case and relation of each of the italicized nouns and pronouns.*

2. "Twice seven consenting years," 1. 3. *Parse twice and seven.* "Just half withdrawn," 1. 6. *Parse just and half.*

3. *Point out any differences in the relations of the adjectives* silent, 1. 8; in shelter, 1. 10; asleep, 1. 14.

XVI. One day, wandering near this open graveyard, we met a boy carrying away, with exulting looks, a skull in very perfect preservation. He was a London boy and looked rich, indeed, with his treasure.

5 "What have you there?" we asked.

"A man's head,—a skull," was the answer.

"And what can you possibly do with a skull?"

"Take it to London."

10 "And when you have it in London what then will you do with it?"

"I know."

"No doubt. But what will you do with it?"

And to this *thrice* repeated question the boy three times answered "I know."

15 "Come, *here's* sixpence. *Now* what will you do with it?"

The boy took the coin, grinned, hugged himself, hugging the skull *the* closer, and said very briskly, "Make a money box of it!"

20 A strange thought for a child, and yet, mused we as we strolled along, how many of us, with nature beneficent and smiling on all sides,—*how* many of us think of nothing so *much* as hoarding sixpences,—*yea*, hoarding them *even* in the very jaws of desolate Death.

1. *State the function and relation of the words ending in ing in the foregoing passage.*

2. *Parse the italicized words.*

3. "Very perfect preservation," 1. 3; "the very jaws of desolate Death," 1. 24. *Distinguish between the uses of very.*

4. *Classify the pronouns* He, 1. 3; What, 1. 5; himself, 1. 17; us, 1. 21; nothing, 1. 23; them, 1. 24.

XVII. A little sun, a little rain,
 A soft wind blowing from the west—
 And woods and fields are sweet again,
 And *warmth* within the mountain's breast.

5 So simple is the earth we tread,
 So quick with love and life her frame,
 Ten thousand years have dawned and fled,
 And still her magic is the same.

 A little *love*, a little trust,
 10 A soft impulse, a sudden dream—
 And life as dry as desert dust
 Is fresher than a mountain *stream*.

 So simple is the heart of man,
 So ready for new hope and joy,
 15 Ten thousand years since it began
 Have left it younger than a boy.

1. *Explain the constructions, A little sun, l. 1, and Ten thousand years, l. 7.*

2. *In what different relations do the adjectives simple, l. 5; dry, l. 11, and younger, l. 16, stand to the nouns they modify.*

3. *Parse the italicized words.*

4. *Rewrite the second stanza so as to show the relation between the thoughts expressed.*

XVIII. If *there* were dreams to sell
 What would you buy?
 Some cost a passing *bell*,
 Some a light sigh
 That shakes from life's fresh crown
 5 *Only* a rose leaf down.
 If there were dreams *to sell*,
 Merry and sad to tell,
 And the crier rang the bell,
 What *would* you *buy*?

- 10 A *cottage* lone and still,
 With bowers *nigh*,
 Shadowy, my woes *to still*
 Until I die.
 Such pearl from life's fresh crown
- 15 *Fain* would I shake *me* down.
 Were dreams *to have* at will,
 This would best heal my ill;
This would I buy.

Parse the italicized words.

- XIX. My heart leaps up when I behold
 A rainbow in the sky;
 So was it when my life began;
 So is *it* now I am a' man;
 5 So be it when I shall grow *old*;
 Or let me die!
 The child is father of the man;
 And I could wish my days *to be*
 Bound *each* to each by natural piety.

1. *Parse the italicized words.*
2. *Point out the function of the verb be, l. 5; shall grow, l. 5; and let die, l. 6.*
3. *Now I am a man, l. 4; explain the construction of this clause.*

- XX. The path became *steeper* and more rugged *every moment*;
 and the high hill instead of refreshing him seemed *to*
throw his blood into a fever. His flask was *half* empty,
 but there was much more than three *drops* in it. He
 5 stopped *to open* it and again as he did so something
 moved in the path before him. It was a fair child
 stretched nearly *lifeless* on the rock, its *breast* heaving
 with thirst and its lips parched and burning. He eyed
 it deliberately, drank, and passed on. The goal was
 10 near. He saw the cataract of the Golden River *spring-*
ing from the hillside scarcely five hundred *feet* above

him. He paused for a moment *to breathe* and sprang on to complete the task.

Parse the italicized words.

XXI. One deed may mar a life,

And *one* can make it;

Hold *firm* thy will for strife,

Lest a quick blow break it!

5 *Even* now from far on viewless wing

Hither speeds the nameless thing

Shall put thy spirit to the test.

Haply or e'er yon sinking sun

Shall drop behind the purple West

10 All will be lost—or won!

1. *Select the subordinate clauses and give the kind and relation of each.*

2. *Parse the italicized words.*

3. *State the function of the verbs* may mar, l. 1; break, l. 4; shall put, l. 7; will be lost, l. 10.

XXII. And *half* I wished the days would come again

When *all* the world was fresh and young; when sea

And sky and land yet teemed with mysteries;

When Science had *not* robbed us of the joy

5 Of Wonder; when the Vast *Unknown* gave scope

For Fancy's dream and *Superstition's* dread;

When pleasing Fear provoked the gallant soul;

When godlike men yet trusted in the strength

Of sinewed arm and brave, undaunted breast;

10 When lonely isles were *homes* of fairy queens;

When gods immortal deigned *to dwell* on earth

And mingle in the affairs of mortal men,

Stand *visible* and thwart us *face to face*,

Or, taking human form and human voice,

15 Beside us walk as *comrades* hand in hand.

Parse the italicized words.

XXIII. Be *obstinately* just;

Indulge no passion and deceive no trust.

Let *never* man be bold enough to say,
 "Thus and no *farther* shall my passion stray."

- 5 The first crime past compels us *on* to more,
 And guilt grows fate that was *but* choice *before*.

1. Parse the italicized adverbs.

2. Explain the function of shall stray, 1. 4.

3. Show the relation of man, 1. 3; crime, 1. 5, and fate, 1. 6.

XXIV. But the holidays I recall with delight were the two days in the spring and the fall, when we went to the distant pasture-land, in a *neighbouring* town, *maybe*, to drive *thither* the young cattle and colts, and *to*

- 5 *bring* them back again. It was a wild and rocky upland *where* our great pasture was, many *miles* from home, the *road* running by a *brawling* river, and up a dashing brookside among great hills. *What* a day's *adventure* it was! It was *like* a journey to Europe.

- 10 The night *before*, I could scarcely sleep for *thinking* of it, and *there* was no trouble about *getting* me up at sunrise that morning. The breakfast was eaten, the luncheon was packed in a large basket, *which* packing I superintended with the greatest interest; and then
- 15 the cattle were to be collected for the march and the horses *hitched* up. Was I slow? I think *not*. I was *willing* to run my legs off after the frisky steers, who seemed *to have* an idea they were going on a lark, and frolicked about, *dashing* into all gates, and
- 20 through all bars *except* the right ones; and how cheerfully did I yell at them; it was a glorious chance *to "holler,"* and I have never since heard any public speaker who *could make* more noise. I have often thought it *fortunate* that the amount of noise made
- 25 by a boy does not increase in proportion to his size; if it *did* the world could not contain it.

1. Select the subordinate clauses and give the kind and relation of each.

2. Parse the italicized words.

XXV. My *own* dim life should teach me this,
 That life shall live for evermore,
Else earth is darkness at the core,
 And dust and ashes all that is;

5 This round of green, this orb of flame,
 Fantastic *beauty*; such as lurks
 In some wild poet, when he works
 Without a conscience or an aim.

What then were God to such as I?

10 'Twere hardly *worth my while* to choose
 Of things all mortal, or to use
 A *little* patience ere I die;

'Twere best at once *to sink* to peace,
 Like birds the *charming* serpent draws,

15 To drop head-foremost in the jaws
 Of vacant darkness and to cease.

1. Select the subordinate clauses and give the kind and relation of each.

2. Parse the italicized words.

3. Describe the function of the verbs should teach, 1. 1; shall live, 1. 2; is, 1. 4; were, 1. 9.

XXVI. Send danger from the east unto the west,
 So honour cross it from the north to south,
 And let them *grapple*; O, the blood more stirs
To rouse a lion than to start a hare.

5 By heaven, *methinks* it *were* an easy leap
To pluck bright honour from the pale-fac'd moon,
 Or dive into the bottom of the deep,
 Where fathom-line could never *touch* the ground,
 And pluck up 'drowned honour by the locks,

10 So he that *doth* redeem her thence *might wear*
 Without corival all her dignities.

1. Parse the italicized words.

2. Select the subordinate clauses and state the kind and relation of each.

ADDITIONAL PASSAGES FOR ANALYSIS

1. When you see discord amongst the troops of your enemy be of good courage; but if they are united, then be upon your guard; when you see contention amongst your enemies, go and sit at ease with your friends; but when you see them of one mind, string your bow and place stones upon the ramparts.

2. Without the love of books the richest man is poor; but endowed with this treasure of treasures the poorest man is rich. He has wealth which no power can diminish, riches which are always increasing, possessions which, the more he scatters the more they accumulate, friends who never desert him and pleasures which never cloy.

3. I am not bound to win but I am bound to be true. I am not bound to succeed but I am bound to live up to what light I have. I must stand with anybody that stands right,—stand with him when he is right and part with him when he goes wrong.

4. Sweet in the eventide—that set of sun—

The calm content that comes to plodding toil,

The conscious dignity of work well done,

The backward glance along the furrowed soil,

Which in its even ridges tells what care

O'erwatched the team and steered the shining share,

Till eventide!

5. An ignorant countryman who had visited Paris was, one day after he had returned, talking to some of his friends about the wonders which he had seen. "I was most surprised," he said, "with the cleverness of the children. Boys and girls of seven and eight spoke French quite as well as the children in this part of the world speak English."

6. It was the season when, through all the land,

The merle and mavis build, and building, sing

Those lovely lyrics written by His hand

Whom Saxon Caedmon calls the Blithe-heart King;

When on the boughs the purple buds expand,

The banners of the vanguard of the spring.

7. When Dr. Johnson was asked by Mr. Boswell how he had attained to his extraordinary excellence in conversation, he replied that he had no other rule or system than this, that whenever he had anything to say he tried to say it in the best manner he was able.

8. I consider a human soul without education like marble in the quarry, which shows none of its inherent beauties until the skill of the polisher fetches out the colours, makes the surface shine, and discovers every ornamental cloud, spot, or vein that runs through the body of it.

9. I am a wanderer: I remember well one journey how
I feared the track was missed, so long the city I desired
to reach lay hid—

When suddenly its spires afar flashed through the circling
clouds.

You may conceive my transport; soon the vapours
closed again, but I

Had seen the city, and one such glance no darkness could
obscure.

10. As I have heard it said by men practised in public address, that hearers are never so much fatigued as by the endeavour to follow a speaker who gives them no clue to his purpose, I will take the slight mask off at once and tell you plainly that I want to speak to you about books and about the way we read them, and could, or should read them.

11. Sweet was the sound, when oft, at evening's close,
Up yonder hill the village murmur rose;
There as I passed with careless steps and slow,
The mingled notes came softened from below;
The swain, responsive as the milkmaid sung,
The sober herd that lowed to meet their young,
The noisy geese that gabbled o'er the pool,
The playful children just let loose from school,
The watch-dog's voice that bayed the whispering wind,
And the loud laugh that spoke the vacant mind,
These all in sweet confusion sought the shade
And filled each pause the nightingale had made.

12. There are no fields of amaranth on this side of the grave; there are no voices, O Rhodopè, that are not soon mute, however tuneful; there is no name, with whatever emphasis of passionate love repeated, of which the echo is not faint at last.

13. The poor boy at the village school has taken comfort as he has read that the time was when Daniel Webster, whose father told him he should go to college if he had to sell every acre of his farm to pay the expenses, laid his head upon the shoulder of that fond and discerning parent, and wept the thanks he could not speak.

14. Dear, beauteous Death, the jewel of the just !
Shining nowhere but in the dark;
What mysteries do lie beyond thy dust,
Could man outlook that mark!

He that hath found some fledged bird's nest, may know
At first sight if the bird be flown;
But what fair dell or grove he sings in now,—
That is to him unknown.

15. It is perseverance that explains how often the position of boys at school is reversed in real life, and it is curious to note how some who were then so clever have since become so commonplace, whilst others, dull boys of whom nothing was expected, have assumed the position of leaders of men.

16. Traddles never said who the real offender was, though he smarted for it next day, and was imprisoned so many hours that he came forth with a whole churchyardful of skeletons swarming over his Latin dictionary.

17. Fond of one art, most men the rest forego;
And all's ridiculous but what they know.
Freely they censure lands they ne'er explore,
With tales they learned from coasters on the shore,
As Afric's petty kings perhaps who hear
Of distant states from some weak traveller,
Imperfect hints with eager ears devour,
And sneer at Europe's fate and Britain's power.

18. As the palmer, lighted by a domestic with a torch, passed through the intricate combination of apartments of this large and irregular mansion, the cupbearer, coming behind him, whispered in his ear, that, if he had no objection to a cup of good mead in his apartment, there were many domestics in that family who would gladly hear the news he had brought from the Holy Land, especially that which concerned the Knight of Ivanhoe.

19. Let fate do her worst, there are relics of joy,
Bright dreams of the past, which she cannot destroy,
Which come in the night-time of sorrow and care,
And bring back the features which joy used to wear.
Long, long be my heart with such memories filled!
Like the vase in which roses have once been distilled—
You may break, you may shatter the vase, if you will,
But the scent of the roses will hang round it still.

20. Perpetual devotion to what a man calls his business, is only to be sustained by perpetual neglect of many other things; and it is not by any means certain that a man's business is the most important thing he has to do.

21. Some years ago there was a question when or where this Mr. Goldham was buried and my inquiries were set at rest by a curious piece of evidence. An old man told me that he knew it was in 1691; and when I asked him how he was able to be so certain, he told me that when he was a boy he used to play in the churchyard where the tombstone of a Mr. Thomas Goldham was broken and lying about, and he remembered the date because it was the same whether it was the right way up or upside down. I at once went to the register and found directly among the burials the entry of Thomas Goldham, December 31, 1691.

22. When fate shall chill at length this fevered breast,
And call its cares and passions into rest,
Oft have I thought 'twould soothe my dying hour,
If aught may soothe when life resigns her power,
To know some humble grave, some narrow cell,
Would hide my bosom where it loved to dwell.

23. The streets, windows, and balconies were filled with eager spectators who rent the air with acclamations. His journey was continually impeded by the multitude pressing to gain a sight of him and of the Indians, who were regarded with as much admiration as if they had been natives of another planet. It was impossible to satisfy the craving curiosity which assailed himself and his attendants at every stage with innumerable questions. Popular rumour, as usual, had exaggerated the truth, and had filled the newly found country with all kinds of wonders.

24. To appreciate the wild and sharp flavours of these October fruits, it is necessary that you be breathing the sharp October or November air. The outdoor air and exercise which the walker gets, give a different tone to his palate, and he craves a fruit which the sedentary would call harsh and crabbed. They must be eaten in the fields when your system is all aglow with exercise, when the frosty weather nips your fingers, the wind rattles the bare boughs or rustles the few remaining leaves, and the jay is heard screaming around. What is sour in the house a bracing walk makes sweet. Some of these apples might be labelled, "To be eaten in the wind."

25. My brother had some ingenious men among his friends, who amused themselves by writing little pieces for this paper, which gained it credit and made it more in demand, and these gentlemen often visited us. Hearing their conversation, and their accounts of the approbation their papers were received with, I was excited to try my hand among them; but, being still a boy, and suspecting that my brother would object to printing anything of mine in his paper if he knew it to be mine, I contrived to disguise my hand, and, writing an anonymous paper, I put it at night under the door of the printing-house. It was found in the morning, and communicated to his writing friends when they called in as usual. They read it, commented on it in my hearing, and I had the exquisite pleasure of finding it met with their approbation.

26. More things are wrought by prayer
Than this world dreams of. Wherefore, let thy voice
Rise like a fountain for me night and day.
For what are men better than sheep or goats
That nourish a blind life within the brain,
If, knowing God, they lift not hands of prayer
Both for themselves and those who call them friend?
For so the whole round earth is every way
Bound by gold chains about the feet of God.

27. Few human beings would consent to be changed into any of the lower animals for a promise of the fullest allowance of beastly pleasures. No instructed human being would be an ignoramus, no intelligent person would consent to be a fool, no person of feeling and conscience would be selfish and base, even though they should be persuaded that the fool, the dunce, or the rascal is better satisfied with his lot than they with theirs. It is better to be a human being dissatisfied than a pig satisfied; better to be a Socrates dissatisfied than a fool satisfied, and if the fool or the pig is of a different opinion it is because they know only their side of the question. The other party to the comparison knows both.

28. To a homeless man, who has no spot on this wide world which he can truly call his own, there is a momentary feeling of something like independence and territorial consequence, when, after a weary day's travel he kicks off his boots, thrusts his feet into slippers, and stretches himself before an inn fire. Let the world without go as it may; let kingdoms rise or fall; so long as he has the wherewithal to pay his bill, he is, for the time being, the very monarch of all he surveys. The arm-chair is his throne, the poker his sceptre, and the little parlour, some twelve feet square, his undisputed empire.

29. What a pleasant thing it is to see a little country lad riding one of the plough-horses to water, thumping his naked heels against the ribs of the stolid steed, and pulling hard on the halter as if it were the bridle of Bucephalus! Or perhaps it is a riotous company of boys that have come down to the old swimming-hole, and are now splashing and gambolling through

the water like a drove of white seals very much sun-burned. You had hoped to catch a goodly trout in that hole, but what of that? The sight of a harmless hour of mirth is better than a fish any day.

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30. So live that when thy summons comes to join
The innumerable caravan which moves
To that mysterious realm where each shall take
His chamber in the silent halls of death,
Thou go not, like the quarry-slave at night,
Scourged to his dungeon; but, sustained and soothed
By an unfaltering trust, approach thy grave
Like one who wraps the drapery of his couch
About him, and lies down to pleasant dreams.

31. I have never made much progress in the philosophy of love. In fact, I can only be sure of the one cardinal principle, that when you are quite sure two people cannot be in love with each other, because there is no earthly reason why they should be, then you may be confident that you are wrong, and that they are in love, for the secret of love is past finding out.

32. On this question of principle, while actual suffering was yet afar off, they raised their flag against a power to which, for purposes of foreign conquest and subjugation, Rome in the height of her glory is not to be compared,—a power which has dotted the surface of the whole globe with her possessions and military posts, whose morning drum-beat, following the sun and keeping company with the hours, circles the earth with one continuous and unbroken strain of the martial airs of England.

33. If this mute earth
Of what it holds could speak, and every grave
Were as a volume, shut, yet capable
Of yielding its contents to eye and ear,
We should recoil, stricken with sorrow and shame,
To see disclosed, by such dread proof, how ill
That which is done accords with what is known
To reason, and by conscience is enjoined.

34. If the reader is tempted to complain of the extreme conciseness with which some topics of the greatest importance are touched on, and the apparent irrelevance with which others have been introduced, I hope he will reserve his judgment until he has read to the end, should his patience hold out so long.

35. I no sooner come into the library but I bolt the door to me, excluding lust, avarice, and all such vices whose nurse is idleness, the mother of ignorance and melancholy herself, and in the very lap of eternity amongst so many divine souls I take my seat with so lofty a spirit and sweet content that I pity all our great ones and rich men that know not this happiness.

36. It is not a question how much a man knows, but what use he can make of what he knows; not a question of what he has acquired, and how he has been trained, but of what he is and what he can do.

37. Let the greatest part of the news thou hearest be the least part of what thou believest, lest the greater part of what thou believest be the least part of what is true.

38. While thus he journeyed, step by step led on,
He saw and passed a stately inn, full sure
That welcome in such house for him was none.
No board, inscribed the needy to allure,
Hung there; no bush proclaimed to old, and poor,
And desolate, "Here you will find a friend!"
The pendent grapes glittered above the door;—
On he must pace, perchance till night descend,
Where'er the dreary roads their bare, white lines extend.

39. It fortifies my soul to know
That, though I perish, truth is so,
That, howso'er I stray or range,
Whate'er I do, thou dost not change;
I steadier step when I recall
That, if I slip, thou dost not fall.

40. No matter how poor I am, no matter though the prosperous of my own time will not enter my obscure dwelling, if the sacred writers will enter and take up their abode under my roof, if Milton will cross my threshold to sing to me of Paradise, and Shakespeare to open to me the worlds of imagination and the workings of the human heart, and Franklin to enrich me with his practical wisdom, I shall not pine for want of intellectual companionship and I may become a cultivated man though excluded from what is called the best society in the place where I live.

41. The voice of Enid rang

Clear through the open casement of the hall,
Singing; and as the sweet voice of a bird
Heard by the lander in a lonely isle,
Moves him to think what kind of bird it is
That sings so delicately clear, and make
Conjecture of the plumage and the form;
So the sweet voice of Enid moved Geraint.

42. Nor perchance,

If I were not thus taught, should I the more
Suffer my genial spirits to decay;
For thou art with me here upon the banks
Of this fair river; thou, my dearest friend,
My dear, dear friend; and in thy voice I catch
The language of my former heart, and read
My former pleasures in the shooting lights
Of thy wild eyes! Oh! yet a little while
May I behold in thee what I was once,
My dear, dear sister. And this prayer I make,
Knowing that Nature never did betray
The heart that loved her; 'tis her privilege
Through all the years of this our life, to lead
From joy to joy; for she can so inform
The mind that is within us, so impress
With quietness and beauty, and so feed
With lofty thoughts, that neither evil tongues,
Rash judgments, nor the sneers of selfish men,
Nor greetings where no kindness is, nor all

The dreary intercourse of daily life
Shall e'er prevail against us, or disturb
Our cheerful faith that all which we behold
Is full of blessings.

43. I grant that there is one subject on which it is pleasant to talk on a journey, and that is, what one shall have for supper when we get to our inn at night. The open air improves this sort of conversation or friendly altercation, by setting a keener edge on the appetite. Every mile of the road heightens the flavour of the viands we expect at the end of it. How fine it is to enter some old town, walled and turreted, just at the approach of nightfall, or to come to some straggling village with the lights streaming through the surrounding gloom, and then, after inquiring for the best entertainment that the place affords, "to take one's ease at one's inn."

44. Columbus also had possessions in the West; and as I read aloud the romantic story of his life, my voice quivers when I come to the part in which it is related that sweet odours of the land mingled with the sea air as the admiral's fleet approached the shore, that tropical birds flew out and fluttered across the ships glittering in the sun, that boughs, perhaps with blossoms not all decayed, floated out to welcome the strange wood from which the craft were hollowed.

45. It is possible in some noble natures that the warmth and affection of childhood may remain unchilled, though unanswered, and that the old man's heart may still be capable of gladness when the long-withheld sympathy is given at last. But in these noble natures it nearly always happens that the chief motive of earthly ambition has not been to give delight to themselves but to their parents. Every noble youth looks back as to the chiefest joy which this world's honour ever gave him, to the moment when first he saw his father's eyes flash with pride and his mother turn away her head lest he should take her tears for tears of sorrow. It is with the pure hope of giving them pleasure that he comes to tell them what he has done or what has been said of him; and therefore he has a purer pleasure of his own.

46. Who would fardels bear,
To grunt and sweat under a weary life,
But that the dread of something after death,
The undiscovered country from whose bourne
No traveller returns, puzzles the will,
And makes us rather bear those ills we have,
Than fly to others that we know not of?
47. When I am forgotten, as I shall be,
And sleep in dull cold marble, where no mention
Of me more must be heard of—say I taught thee;
Say Wolsey, that once trod the ways of glory,
And sounded all the depths and shoals of honour,
Found thee a way, out of his wrack, to rise in,
A sure and safe one, though thy master missed it.

48. The charge that was long ago made against our wild flowers by English travellers in this country, namely, that they were odourless, doubtless had its origin in the fact that, whereas in England the sweet-scented flowers are among the most common and conspicuous, in this country they are rather shy and withdrawn, and consequently not such as travellers would be likely to encounter.

49. Call him not old, whose visionary brain
Holds o'er the past its undivided reign;
For him in vain the envious seasons roll
Who bears eternal summer in his soul.
If yet the minstrel's song, the poet's lay,
Spring with her birds, or children with their play,
Or maiden's smile, or heavenly dream of art,
Stir the few life-drops creeping round his heart,
Turn to the record where his years are told—
Count his gray hairs—they cannot make him old.

50. Thou hast been a citizen in this wide city—count not for how long, nor complain, since that which sends thee hence is no unrighteous judge, no tyrant, but Nature, who brought thee hither, as when a player leaves the stage at the bidding of the conductor who hired him. Sayest thou, 'I have not played five acts'? True! but in human life three acts only

make sometimes a complete play. That is the composer's business, not thine. Retire with a good will; for that too hath, perchance, a good will which dismisseth thee from thy part.

51. On the next day Brutus came down and addressed the people, who listened without expressing disapprobation or approbation of what had been done, but they indicated by their deep silence that they pitied Cæsar and respected Brutus. The Senate decreed that Cæsar should be honoured as a god, and that not the smallest thing should be disturbed which he had settled while he was in power; and they distributed among the partisans of Brutus provinces and suitable honours, so that all people supposed that affairs were quieted, and had been settled in the best way.

52. Seven years, my Lord, have now passed, since I waited in your outward rooms, or was repulsed from your door; during which time I have been pushing on my work through difficulties, of which it is useless to complain, and have brought it, at last, to the verge of publication, without one act of assistance, one word of encouragement, or one smile of favour. Such treatment I did not expect, for I never had a patron before. Is not a patron, my Lord, one who looks with unconcern on a man struggling for life in the water, and, when he has reached the ground, encumbers him with help? The notice which you have been pleased to take of my labours, had it been early, had been kind; but it has been delayed till I am indifferent, and cannot enjoy it; till I am solitary, and cannot impart it; till I am known, and do not want it.

53. One would like to live long enough to witness certain things which will no doubt come to pass by-and-by. I remember that when one of our good-hearted old millionaires was growing very infirm, his limbs failing him and his trunk getting packed with the infirmities which mean that one is bound on a long journey, he said very simply and sweetly, "I don't care about living a great deal longer; but I *should* like to live long enough to find out how much old Blank (a

many-millioned citizen) is worth." And without committing myself on the longevity question I confess I should like to live long enough to see a few things happen that are like to come sooner or later.

54. When o'er the street the morning peal is flung
From yon tall belfry with the brazen tongue,
Its wide vibrations wafted by the gale
To each far listener tell a different tale.

The sexton, stooping to the quivering floor
Till the great caldron spills its brassy roar,
Whirls the hot axle, counting, one by one,
Each dull concussion till his task is done.

Toil's patient daughter, when the welcome note
Clangs through the silence from the steeple's throat,
Streams, a white unit, to the checkered street,
Demure, but guessing whom she soon shall meet;
The bell, responsive to her secret flame,
With every note repeats her lover's name.

The lover, tenant of the neighbouring lane,
Sighing and fearing lest he sigh in vain,
Hears the stern accents as they come and go,
Their only burden one despairing No!

Ocean's rough child, whom many a shore has known
Ere homeward breezes swept him to his own,
Starts at the echo as it circles round,
A thousand memories kindling with the sound,—
The early favourite's unforgotten charms
Whose blue initial stains his tawny arms,
His first farewell, his flapping canvas spread,
The seaward streamers crackling o'er his head,
His kind, pale mother, not ashamed to weep
Her firstborn's bridal with the haggard deep,
While the brave father stood with tearless eye,
Smiling and choking with his last good-bye.
'Tis but a wave whose spreading circle beats
With the same impulse every nerve it meets;
Yet who shall count the varied shapes that ride
On the rude surge of that aerial tide!

55. The drawbridge dropped with a surly clang,
And through the dark arch a charger sprang,
Bearing Sir Launfal, the maiden knight,
In his gilded mail, that flamed so bright
It seemed the dark castle had gathered all
Those shafts the fierce sun had shot over its wall
In his siege of three hundred summers long,
And, binding them all in one blazing sheaf,
Had cast them forth: so, young and strong,
And lightsome as a locust leaf,
Sir Launfal flashed forth in his unscarred mail,
To seek in all climes for the Holy Grail.

56. Breathes there a man with soul so dead
Who never to himself hath said,
"This is my own, my native land!"
Whose heart hath ne'er within him burned
As home his footsteps he hath turned,
From wandering on a foreign strand!
If such there breathe, go, mark him well;
For him, no minstrel raptures swell;
High though his titles, proud his name,
Boundless his wealth as wish can claim,
Despite those titles, power, and pelf,
The wretch, concentrated all in self,
Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
And, doubly dying, shall go down
To the vile dust from whence he sprung,
Unwept, unhonour'd, and unsung.

57. The necessity of setting the world at a distance from us when we are to take a survey of ourselves, has sent many from high stations to the severities of a monastic life; and, indeed, every man deeply engaged in business, if all regard to another estate be not extinguished, must have the conviction, though perhaps not the resolution, of Valdesso, who, when he solicited Charles the Fifth to dismiss him, being asked whether he retired upon disgust, answered that he laid down his commission for no other reason than because there ought to be some time for sober reflection between the life of a soldier and his death.

58. "Now, in good sooth," Lord Marmion cried,
"Were I in warlike wise to ride,
A better guard I would not lack,
Than your stout foragers at my back;
But, as in form of peace I go,
A friendly messenger, to know
Why through all Scotland, near and far,
The king is mustering troops for war,
The sight of plundering Border spears
Might justify suspicious fears,
And deadly feud, or thirst of spoil,
Break out in some unseemly broil."
59. I met a traveller from an antique land
Who said: "Two vast and trunkless legs of stone
Stand in the desert. Near them, on the sand,
Half-sunk, a shattered visage lies, whose frown
And wrinkled lip and sneer of cold command,
Tell that the sculptor well those passions read
Which still survive, stamped on these lifeless things,
The hand that mocked them, and the heart that fed."
60. Such is the patriot's boast, where'er we roam,
His first, best country, ever is at home.
And yet, perhaps, if countries we compare,
And estimate the blessings which they share,
Though patriots flatter, still shall wisdom find
An equal portion dealt to all mankind;
As different good, by art or nature given
To different nations, makes their blessings even.
61. O for the coming of that glorious time, when, prizing
knowledge as her noblest wealth and best protection, this
imperial realm, while she exacts allegiance, shall admit an
obligation on her part to teach them who are born to serve
her and obey, binding herself by statute to secure for all the
children whom her soil maintains, the rudiments of letters,
and inform the mind with moral and religious truth.
62. If true there be another, better land,
A fairer than this humble mother shore,

Hoping to meet the blessed gone before,
I fain would go. But may no angel hand
Lead on so far along the shining sand,
So wide within the everlasting door,
'Twill shut away this good, green world. No more
Of earth! Let me not hear that dread command.

63. Let us sit down quietly and comfortably and enjoy our coming old age. Oh, if you are in earnest and will transplant yourself hither how happy I shall be. You know, if you believe an experience of above thirty years, that you are one of the very, very few for whom I really care a straw. You know how long I have been vexed for seeing so little of you. What has one to do when one grows tired of the world, as we both do, but to draw nearer and nearer and gently waste the remains of life with the friends with whom one began it! Young and happy people will have no regard for us and our old stories; and they are in the right; but we shall not tire one another; we shall laugh together when nobody is by to laugh at us, and we may think ourselves young enough when we see nobody younger.

64. It seems to be agreed that civilization is kept up only by a constant effort. Nature claims its own speedily when the effort is relaxed. If you clear a patch of fertile ground in the forest, uproot the stumps and plant it, year after year, in potatoes and maize, you say you have subdued it. But if you leave it for a season or two, a kind of barbarism seems to steal out upon it from the circling woods; coarse grass and brambles cover it; bushes spring up in a wild tangle; the raspberry and the blackberry flower and fruit, and the humorous bear feeds upon them. The last state of the ground is worse than the first.

65. Did you never, in walking in the fields, come across a large flat stone, which had lain, nobody knows how long, just where you found it, with the grass forming a little hedge, as it were, all round it, close to its edges,—and have you not, in obedience to a kind of feeling that told you it had been lying there long enough, insinuated your stick or your foot or your fingers under its edge, and turned it over as a housewife

turns a cake, when she says to herself, "It's done brown enough by this time"? What an odd revelation, and what an unforeseen and unpleasant surprise to a small community, the very existence of which you had not suspected until the sudden dismay and scattering among its members produced by your turning the old stone over.

66. Let music sound while he doth make his choice,
Then, if he lose, he makes a swan-like end,
Fading is music; that the comparison
May stand more proper, my eye shall be the stream
And watery death-bed for him. He may win;
And what is music then? Then music is
Even as the flourish when true subjects bow
To a new-crowned monarch; such it is
As are those dulcet sounds in break of day
That creep into the dreaming bridegroom's ear
And summon him to marriage. Now he goes,
With no less presence, but with much more love,
Than young Alcides, when he did redeem
The virgin tribute paid by howling Troy
To the sea monster; I stand for sacrifice;
The rest aloof are the Dardanian wives,
With bleared visages, come forth to view
The issue of the exploit. Go, Hercules!
Live thou, I live; with much, much more dismay
I view the fight than thou that makest the fray.

67. Where the quiet-coloured end of evening smiles,
Miles and miles,
On the solitary pasture, where our sheep,
Half-asleep,
Tinkle homeward thro' the twilight, stray or stop,
As they crop—
Was the site once of a city great and gay,
(So they say)
Of our country's very capital, its prince
Ages since,
Held his court in, gathered councils, wielding far
Peace or war.

68. When I meet the engine with its train of cars moving off with planetary motion,—or, rather,—like a comet, for the beholder knows not if with that velocity and with that direction it will ever revisit this system, since its orbit does not look like a returning curve,—with its steam cloud like a banner streaming behind in golden and silver wreaths, like many a downy cloud which I have seen, high in the heavens, unfolding its masses to the light,—as if this travelling demigod, this cloud-compeller, would ere long take the sunset sky for the livery of his train; when I hear the iron horse make the hills echo with his snort like thunder, shaking the earth with his feet, and breathing fire and smoke from his nostrils (what kind of winged horse or fiery dragon they will put into the new Mythology I don't know), it seems as if the earth had got a race now worthy to inhabit it.

69. Fair as the earliest beam of eastern light,
When first, by the bewildered pilgrim spied,
It smiles upon the dreary brow of night
And silvers o'er the torrent's foaming tide,
And lights the fearful path on mountain side,—
Fair as that beam, although the fairest far,
Giving to horror grace, to danger pride,
Shine martial Faith and Courtesy's bright star
Through all the wreckful storms that cloud the brow
of War.

70. For therein stands the office of a king,
His honour, virtue, merit, and chief praise,
That for the public such a weight he bears;
Yet he who reigns within himself, and rules
Passions, desires, and fears, is more a king,—
Which every wise and virtuous man attains;
And who attains not, ill aspires to rule
Cities of men or headstrong multitudes,
Subject himself to anarchy within,
Or lawless passions in him, which he serves.

71. Don't dare to say that in any day of your life or in all your life together you have done the best that you could. The

Pharisee said it when he went up into the temple, and all the world looked on with mingled pity and scorn at the blindness of the man who stood there and paraded his faithfulness; while all the world has bent with a pity that was near to love, a pity that was full of sympathy because man recognized his condition and experience, for the poor creature grovelling upon the pavement, unwilling and unable even to look upon the altar, but who, standing afar off, said, "God be merciful to me a sinner." Whatever else you say, don't say, "I have done the very best I could."

72. As the noise began to abate, a broad glare of light appeared from the gate of the Park, and advanced along the avenue that led towards the Gallery-tower, which was lined by the retainers of the Earl of Leicester. The word was passed along the line, "The Queen! The Queen! Silence, and stand fast!" Onward came the cavalcade, illuminated by two hundred thick waxen torches, which cast a light like that of broad day all around the procession, but especially on the principal group, of which the Queen herself, arrayed in the most splendid manner, and blazing with jewels, formed the central figure. She was mounted on a milk-white horse, which she reined with peculiar grace and dignity; and in the whole of her stately and noble carriage, you saw the daughter of an hundred kings.

73. And yet, dear heart, remembering thee
Am I not richer than of old?
Safe in thy immortality,
What change can reach the wealth I hold?
What chance can mar the pearl and gold
Thy love hath left in trust with me?
And while in life's late afternoon,
When cool and long the shadows grow,
I walk to meet the night that soon
Shall shape and shadow overflow,
I cannot feel that thou art far,
Since near at need the angels are;

And when the sunset gates unbar,
Shall I not see thee waiting stand,
And white against the evening star,
The welcome of thy beckoning hand?

74. The man who will go into a cotton-mill and contemplate it from the great water-wheel that gives the first movement, (and still more from the steam engine, should that be the moving power), who will observe the parts of the machinery, and the various processes of the fabric, till he reaches the hydraulic press with which it is made into a ball, and the canal or railroad by which it is sent to market, may find every branch of trade, and every department of science, literally crossed, intertwined, interwoven with every other, like the woof and the warp of the article manufactured.

75. Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world, and all our woe,
With loss of Eden, till one greater Man
Restore us and regain the blissful seat,
Sing, Heavenly Muse, that on the secret top
Of Oreb, or of Sinai, didst inspire
That shepherd who first taught the chosen seed
In the beginning how the heavens and earth
Rose out of Chaos.

76. Should banded unions persecute
Opinion and induce a time,
When single thought is civil crime,
And individual freedom mute,
Though Power should make from land to land
The name of Britain trebly great,
Though every channel of the State
Should fill and choke with golden sand,
Yet waft me from the harbour mouth,
Wild wind; I seek a warmer sky,
And I will see, before I die,
The palms and temples of the South.

77. But what if he, our Conqueror, whom I now
Of force believe almighty, since no less
Than such could have o'erpowered such force as ours,
Have left us this our spirit and strength entire,
Strongly to suffer and support our pains,
That we may so suffice his vengeful ire,
Or do him mightier service as his thralls
By right of war, whate'er his business be,
Here in the heart of hell to work in fire,
Or do his errands in the gloomy deep?
What can it then avail, though yet we feel
Strength undiminish'd, or eternal being,
To undergo eternal punishment?

78. This is the ship of pearl, which, poets feign,
Sails the unshadowed main,—
The venturous bark that flings
On the sweet summer wind its purpled wings,
In gulfs enchanted where the siren sings
And coral reefs lie bare,
Where the cold sea-maids rise to sun their streaming hair.

Its webs of living gauze no more unfurl;
Wrecked is the ship of pearl;
And every chambered cell,
Where its dim dreaming life was wont to dwell
As the frail tenant shaped his growing shell,
Before thee lies revealed,
Its irised ceiling rent, its sunless crypt unsealed.

79. If history has ever furnished a lesson, how an unscrupulous tyrant, who has determined upon enlarging his own territories at the expense of his neighbours, and upon suppressing human freedom wherever it dares to manifest itself, has succeeded in deceiving his friends and enemies alike as to his nefarious and almost incredible designs, by means of perpetual and colossal falsehoods, and if such lessons deserve to be pondered as a source of instruction and guidance for every age, then certainly the secret story of the negotiations by which the

wise Queen of England was beguiled and her kingdom brought to the verge of ruin in the spring of 1588, is worthy of serious attention.

80.

O Thou

Passionless bride, divine Tranquillity,
Yearned after by the wisest of the wise,
Who fail to find thee, being, as thou art,
Without one pleasure and without one pain,
Howbeit I know thou surely must be mine
Or soon or late, yet out of season thus
I woo thee roughly, for thou carest not
How roughly men may woo thee, so they win.

APPENDIX I

GENDER FORMS OF NOUNS

(a) Different words for Masculine and Feminine:

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
bachelor	maid, or spinster	hart	roe, or hind
boar	sow	horse, or stallion	mare
boy	girl	husband	wife
brother	sister	king	queen
buck	doe	lad	lass
bull, or ox	cow	lord	lady
bullock, or steer	heifer	male	female
cock	hen	man	woman
colt	filly	nephew	niece
drake	duck	ram	ewe
earl	countess	sire	dam
father	mother	son	daughter
friar, or monk	nun	stag	hind
gander	goose	uncle	aunt
gentleman	lady	wizard	witch

(b) Feminines formed by foreign or Old English terminations:

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
administrator	administratrix	infant	infanta
beau	belle	landgraf	landgravine
czar	czarina	prosecutor	prosecutrix
don	donna	signor	signora
executor	executrix	sultan	sultana
fox	vixen	testator	testatrix
hero	heroine	widower	widow

Note: *Widower* (masc.) is derived from *widow* (fem.) by the addition of *er*. In Old English *widow* was either Masculine or Feminine.

(c) Feminines formed by the addition of "ess" to the Masculine:

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
author	authoress	lion	lioness
baron	baroness	mayor	mayoress
count	countess	priest	priestess
giant	giantess	prophet	prophetess
heir	heiress	shepherd	shepherdess
host	hostess	tailor	tailoress
Jew	Jewess		

(d) Feminines formed by the addition of "ess" to an altered form of the masculine:

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
abbot	abbess	marquis	marchioness
actor	actress	master	mistress
ambassador	ambadress	negro	negress
benefactor	benefactress	songster	songstress
conductor	conductress	tiger	tigress
duke	duchess	traitor	traitress
elector	electress	waiter	waitress
hunter	huntress		

(e) Nouns with the termination "er" or "or" in the masculine, and "ess" in the feminine:

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
adulterer	adulteress	governor	governess
caterer	cateress	murderer	murderess
emperor	empress	sorcerer	sorceress

(f) Masculines and feminines distinguished by special gender-words:

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
he-bear	she-bear	manservant	maidservant
he-goat	she-goat	cocksparrow	hensparrow
gentleman	gentlewoman	peacock	peahen
landlord	landlady	bridegroom	bride

APPENDIX II

PLURAL FORMS OF NOUNS

(a) Nouns ending in "f" or "fe" with plurals in "ves":

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
elf	elves	loaf	loaves
self	selves	thief	thieves
shelf	shelves	leaf	leaves
knife	knives	sheaf	sheaves
calf	calves	staff	stuffs, staves
half	halves	wharf	wharfs, wharves
life	lives		

(b) Nouns ending in "f" or "fe" with plurals in "s":

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
belief	beliefs	hoof	hoofs
chief	chiefs	reef	reefs
cliff	cliffs	roof	roofs
dwarf	dwarfs	scarf	scarfs
gulf	gulfs	proof	proofs
life	lives		

(c) Nouns ending in "o" which form their plurals by adding "es":

buffalo, calico, cargo, echo, hero, mosquito, motto, negro, potato, tomato, volcano.

(d) Nouns ending in "o" which form their plurals by adding "s" only:

bravo, canto, domino, embryo, folio, grotto, memento, nuncio, octavo, oratorio, piano, portfolio, quarto, solo, stiletto, tyro, virtuoso.

(e) Nouns forming their plurals by a change of vowel (vowel-mutation):

foot, goose, louse, man, mouse, tooth, woman.

(f) Nouns with foreign plurals:

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Latin:	addendum	addenda
	amanuensis	amanuenses
	animalculum	animalcula
	appendix	appendices, appendixes
	arcana	arcana
	axis	axes
	datum	data
	dictum	dicta
	effluvium	effluvia
	erratum	errata
	fungus	fungi, funguses
	focus	foci
	formula	formulæ, formulas
	genius	genii, geniuses
	genus	genera
	index	indices, indexes
	larva	larvæ
	magus	magi
	medium	media
	memorandum	memoranda
Greek:	nebula	nebulæ
	oasis	oases
	radius	radii
	stimulus	stimuli
	stratum	strata
	terminus	termini
	vortex	vortices
	analysis	analyses
	antithesis	antitheses
	automaton	automata
	basis	bases
	crisis	crises
	criterion	criteria
	ellipsis	ellipses

Greek:	hypothesis	hypotheses
	miasma	miasmata
	phenomenon	phenomena
	thesis	theses
French:	beau	beaux
	chateau	chateaux
	madam	mesdames
	master, mister (Mr.), monsieur	messieurs (Messrs.)
Italian:	bandit	banditti, or bandits
	conversazione	conversazioni
	dilettante	dilettanti
	virtuoso	virtuosi
Hebrew:	cherub	cherubim, cherubs
	seraph	seraphim, seraphs

(g) Nouns used only in the plural form:

(1) *With a plural meaning:*

aborigines, alms, annals, antipodes, banns, bellows, billiards, bowels, breeches, draughts, errata, filings, literati, minutiae, nuptials, oats, odds, premises, proceeds, riches, scissors, shears, snuffers, spectacles, stamina, trousers, victuals, vitals, wages.

(2) *With a singular meaning:*

amends, gallows, means, news, pains ("trouble"), shambles, also names of branches of study ending in *ics*—mathematics, physics, politics.

(h) Nouns with two plurals:

appendix	appendices appendixes
brother	brothers—by birth brethren—of the same society
cloth	cloths—varieties of cloth clothes—garments
cow	cows—separate individuals kine—(older form) collective
die	dice—cubes for gaming dies—stamps for coining
genius	geniuses, or men of genius genii—fabled spirits
index	indices—algebraic signs indexes—tables of contents
pea	peas—single seeds pease—the grain as a species
penny	pennies—separate coins pence—value or amount
shot	shots—discharges shot—balls or bullets
staff	staves—companies of officers staves—props or supports
wharf	wharfs wharves

APPENDIX III

PRINCIPAL PARTS OF OLD CONJUGATION VERBS

The forms in brackets are obsolete; the forms in italics are used as adjectives. This list includes a few verbs which are now generally considered as belonging to the new conjugation, the old conjugation forms having become obsolete.

Root Infinitive	Past Tense	Perfect Participle
abide	abode	
arise	arose	arisen
be	was	been
bear	bore (bare)	borne, <i>born</i>
beat	beat	beaten, beat
begin	began	begun
bid (to command)	bade	bidden
bid (to offer)	bid	bid
bind	bound	bound (<i>bounden</i>)
bite	bit	bitten, bit
blow	blew	blown
break	broke (brake)	broken
burst	burst	burst
cast	cast	cast
chide	chid	chidden, chid
choose	chose	chosen
cleave (to adhere)	clave, cleaved	cleaved
cleave (to split)	clove, cleft	cloven, cleft, cleaved
climb	climbed (clomb)	climbed
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
creep	crept	crept
crow	crew	crowed
dig	dug (digged)	dug (digged)
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk, <i>drunken</i>
drive	drove (drave)	driven
eat	eat, ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	fought (foughten)
find	found	found
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got (gotten)

give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grave	graved	graven
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung, hanged	hung, hanged
heave	hove, heaved	heaved
help	helped (holp)	helped (holpen)
hew	hewed	hewed, hewn
hide	hid	hidden, hid
hold	held	held (holden)
know	knew	known
lade	laded	laden
lie	lay	lain
melt	melted	melted, <i>molten</i>
mow	mowed	mown
((be)queath)	quoth	
ride	rode (rid)	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive	rived	riven, rived
run	ran	run
saw	sawed	sawed, sawn
see	saw	seen
seethe	seethed	seethed, <i>sodden</i>
sew	sewed	sewed, sewn
shake	shook	shaken
shape	shaped	shaped (shapen)
shave	shaved	shaved (<i>shaven</i>)
shear	sheared (shore)	shorn, sheared
shine	shone	shone
shoot	shot	shot (shotten)
show, shew	showed, shewed	showed, shown, shewn
shrink	shrank	shrunk, <i>shrunken</i>
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank, sunk	sunk, <i>sunken</i>
sit	sat (sate)	sat
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slidden
sling	slung	slung
slink	slank, slunk	slunk
slit	slit	slit
smite	smote	smitten
sow	sowed	sowed, sown
speak	spoke (spake)	spoken
spin	span, spun	spun
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stunk (stank)	stunk

strew	strewed (strowed)	strewn, strown, strewed
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck (stricken)
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
swell	swelled	swollen, swelled
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
thrive	throve	thriven
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden
wake	waked, woke	waken, woke
wax	waxed	waxed (waxen)
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote (writ)	written (writ)

APPENDIX IV

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

In the following table, in the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods, only the third person singular forms are given:

INDICATIVE

		Active	Passive
Present—	<i>Indefinite</i>	gives	is given
	<i>Progressive</i>	is giving	is being given
	<i>Perfect</i>	has given	has been given
	<i>Perfect Progressive</i>	has been giving	
	<i>Emphatic</i>	does give	
Past	<i>Indefinite</i>	gave	was given
	<i>Progressive</i>	was giving	was being given
	<i>Perfect</i>	had given	had been given
	<i>Perfect Progressive</i>	had been giving	
	<i>Emphatic</i>	did give	
Future—	<i>Indefinite</i>	will give	will be given
	<i>Progressive</i>	will be giving	
	<i>Perfect</i>	will have given	will have been given
	<i>Perfect Progressive</i>	will have been giving	

SUBJUNCTIVE

	Active	Passive
Present — <i>Indefinite</i>	give	be given
<i>Progressive</i>	be giving	
<i>Perfect</i>	have given	have been given
<i>Perfect Progressive</i>	have been giving	
<i>Emphatic</i>	do give	
Past — <i>Indefinite</i>	gave	were given
<i>Progressive</i>	were giving	were being given
<i>Perfect</i>	had given	had been given
<i>Perfect Progressive</i>	had been giving	
<i>Emphatic</i>	did give	

SUBJUNCTIVE VERB PHRASES

	Active	Passive
Present — <i>Indefinite</i>	may give	may be given
<i>Progressive</i>	may be giving	
<i>Perfect</i>	may have given	may have been given
<i>Perfect Progressive</i>	may have been giving	
Past — <i>Indefinite</i>	might, should, or would give	might, should, or would be given
<i>Progressive</i>	might, should, or would be giving	
<i>Perfect</i>	might, should, or would have given	might, should, or would have been given
<i>Perfect Progressive</i>	might, should, or would have been giving	

IMPERATIVE (PRESENT, ACTIVE)

<i>Simple</i>	(you) give
<i>Phrasal</i>	let (<i>me</i> , etc.) give
<i>Emphatic</i>	(you) do give

DERIVED FORMS

Infinitives

Ordinary	Progressive	Passive
Simple (to) give	(to) be giving	(to) be given
Perfect to have given	(to) have been giving	(to) have been given

Gerunds

Imperfect giving		being given
Perfect having given	having been giving	having been given

Participles

Imperfect giving		(being) given
Perfect given	having been giving	having been given
having given		

APPENDIX V

MAIN FAMILIES OF LANGUAGES

Hamitic: Coptic, Ethiopian or Abyssinian, Libyan, and Hottentot.

Semitic: Hebrew, Phœnician, Syriac, Chaldee, Arabic.

Turanian: Chinese, Siberian, Turkish, Magyar, Basque, Finnish, Lappish.

Aryan: **Indian** (*Sanscrit*): Hindoo dialects.

Iranian (*Zend*): Persian, Kurdish, Afghan.

Armenian: Armenian dialects.

Hellenic (*Greek*): Modern Greek.

Albanian.

Italic (*Latin*): Italian, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Roumanian.

Celtic: Gaelic, Welsh, Manx, Breton.

Balto-Slavic: Lithuanian, Lettic, Russian, Polish, Bohemian, Servian, Bulgarian.

Teutonic: I. *Gothic*.

II. Norse or Scandinavian, including Norwegian, Icelandic, Danish, and Swedish.

III. West Germanic, comprising:

(a) Low German: including English, Frisian, North (or Low) German, Dutch, Flemish, and Low Franconian.

(b) High German: Modern German.

APPENDIX VI

PREFIXES, SUFFIXES, AND ROOT-WORDS

PREFIXES

NATIVE

I.—Living

By-, **be-** (*about, thoroughly; forming transitives*): begirdle, befoul.

Mis- (*wrong, not*): misdeed, miscall (sometimes Fr., as in *mischief*).

Un- (*not; with verbs, the reverse*): un-English, untruth, undo.

After, fore, in, off, on, out, over, th(o)rough, and up, which are still separate words, are used like prefixes, and are sometimes called *separable* prefixes.

II.—Dead

- A-(*on*): alive (< on life [179]).
 A- (*of*): adown, afresh, akin.
 A- (*intensive*): ashamed, athirst.
 A- (*out*): abide, arise, arouse, affright.
 A-, an- (*against*): along, answer, acknowledge.
 A-, e- (*meaningless*): afford, aware, e-nough.
 At-: ado, twit, (< wit "to note").
 For- (*away from*): forbear, forbid, forego.
 Ne-, n- (*not*): never.
 With- (*against*): withhold.

ROMANIC AND GREEK

I.—Living

- Ante- (*before*): antedate, anticipate.
 Anti- Gr. (*against*): antitoxin.
 Bis- bi- (*two, twice*): biped, bi-monthly.
 Com-, co- (*together, strongly*): co-heir, commingle, concur, collect, correct, countenance.
 Contra-, Fr. counter (*against*): contradict, controvert, counter-balance.
 De- (*down, from, the reverse, thoroughly*): depress, depart, deodorize, desiccate.
 Demi- (*half*): demigod.
 Dis-, Fr. des-, de- (*asunder, the reverse*): dissever, dislike, diffuse, diverge, descant, defy.
 Ex-, e- (*out, out and out*): ex-president, evolve, effect. Gr. exodus, ec-stasy.
 In-, Fr. en-, em- (*in, on*): incrust, impassioned, illuminate, irradiate, engrave, embolden.
 In- (*not*): incautious, imperfect, illiberal, irregular.
 Inter-, Fr. enter- (*within, among*): interchange, introspection, enterprise.
 Non- (*not*): non-denominational.
 Post- (*after*): postdate.
 Pre- (*before*): prearrange.
 Red-, re- (*back, again*): readmit, reintegrate.
 Retro- (*backward*): retroactive.
 Semi- (*half*): semipolitical.
 Sub- (*under, upwards*): sub-examiner, succumb, suffix, suggest, summon, suppress, surreptitious, suspend.
 Super-, Fr. sur- (*over*): supercargo, surpass.
 Trans-, Fr. tres- (*across*): tranship, traverse, trespass.
 Ultra- (*beyond*): ultra-radical.
 Vice- (*in place of*): vice-consul.

II.—Dead

- A-, ab- (*off, from*): avert, abnormal, ab-s-tract.
 Ad-, Fr. a- (*to*): adjudge, abbreviate=abridge, accompany, affix, aggrieve, allocate, ammunition, annul, applaud, arrange, assign, attune, achieve.

- Ambi-, am- (*both, on both sides*): ambidextrous, amputate.
 Amphi-, Gr. (*on both sides*): amphitheatre.
 An-, a-, Gr. (*not*): anarchy, apathetic.
 Ana-, Gr. (*up, back*): analysis.
 Apo-, Gr. (*from*): apogee, aphelion.
 Bene- (*well*): benefactor.
 Cata-, Gr. (*down*): catastrophe, cathedral.
 Circum- (*around*): circumnavigate, circuit.
 Dia-, Gr. (*through, in two*): diameter.
 Dys-, Gr. (*ill*): dyspepsia.
 En-, endo-, Gr. (*in*): energy, emblem, ellipsis, endogen.
 Epi-, Gr. (*upon*): epigram, ephemeral.
 Exo-, Gr. (*outwards*): exogen.
 Hemi-, Gr. (*half*): hemisphere.
 Hyper-, Gr. (*over*): hypercritical.
 Hypo-, Gr. (*under*): hypophosphite, hyphen.
 Meta-, Gr. (*after, change*): metaphysics, metathesis, method.
 Male- (*ill*): malcontent.
 Ob- (*in front of, against*): obstruct, occur, offer, oppress.
 Para-, Gr. (*beside, contrary to*): paradox, perihelion.
 Per-, Fr. par- (*through, thoroughly, wrongly*): permutation, pardon, pellucid, pervert.
 Peri-, Gr. (*around*): perimeter.
 Pro-, por-, Fr. pur- (*forward, for*): proconsul, portend, pursue.
 Sed-, se- (*apart*): sedition, secede.
 Sine- (*without*): sinecure.
 Subter- (*below*): subterfuge.
 Syn-, Gr. (*together*): syntax, sympathy, syllogism, system.

SUFFIXES

NATIVE

(Forming Nouns and Adjectives)

I.—Living

- dom (*rule, quality, collection*): kingdom, wisdom, Christendom.
 -ed (*participial, and "possessing"*): loved, heard, aged.
 -en (*part., and "made of," "belonging to"*): given, silken, heathen.
 -er (*one who*): walker.
 -fold (*times*): manifold.
 -ful: truthful.
 -hood (*condition*): childhood (=head, in Godhead).
 -ing (*part. and noun*): hearing, dwelling.
 -ish (*belonging to, somewhat*) Scottish, Scotch, blackish.
 -less (*without*): fadeless.
 -ly (*like; also adv.*): manly, falsely.
 -ness (*the being*): sickness.
 -some (*like*): burdensome.
 -ster (*one who*): trickster, spinster.
 -ward(s) (*turned to*): cityward(s).
 -y, -ie (*like, belonging to, little*): tricky, clayey, Billy, Nellie.

II.—Dead

- d, -m, -n (*that which*): flood, bloom, bairn.
- er, -r (*means, place*): finger, lair.
- fast (*firm*): steadfast (also in *shamefaced* = "shame-fast").
- ing (*sprung from, little*): Carling, farthing.
- kin (*little*): lambkin, Wilkins.
- le, -el, (*little, means*): runnel, handle.
- ling (=l+*-ing, little, contemptible*): duckling, hireling.
- ter, -der (*that which*): laughter, bladder.
- lock, -ledge (*state*): wedlock, knowledge.
- ock (*little*): hillock.
- red (*state*): hatred.
- th, -t (*state or act, in order*): truth, theft, tenth.
- ther, -ter (*one who*): brother, daughter.

(Forming Verbs)

I.—Living

- en (*become, make*): deepen, fatten.

II.—Dead

- k, (*often*): hark.
- le, er (*often*): sparkle, sputter.
- se (*make*): cleanse.

ROMANIC AND GREEK

(Forming Nouns and Adjectives)

I.—Living

- able (*that can be*): reliable.
- ade (*state, collection*): blockade, colonnade.
- age (*act, state, product, collection, place*): bondage, postage, village, hermitage.
- al (*act of, belonging to*): withdrawal, tidal.
- an, -ian (*belonging to, one who*): pagan, publican, Canadian.
- ard (*one who*): drunkard.
- ee (*one that is*): payee, (=y, in jury, attorney).
- er, -eer, -ier, -ar (*one who*): archer, engineer, brigadier, vicar.
- y (*place, state*): tannery, villainy, -e -ry (*state, product, collection*): slavery, roguery, poetry, rookery.
- cy (*state*): bankruptcy, tenancy.
- ess (*one who: fem.*): governess.
- ese (*belonging to*): Chinese, courteous (by analogy).
- et, -let (*little*): floweret, circlet.
- ic (*belonging to, like*): athletic, domestic.
- ical (=ic+al): angelical.
- ive, -ory (*inclined to*): plaintive, advisory.
- ism, Gr. (*the being, what is, doctrine of*): Anglicism, mannerism, witticism (by analogy).
- ine, -in (*like*): adamantine.
- ist, Gr. (*one who habitually*): copyist, (cf. gymnast, enthusiast).
- ite (*belonging to, adherent of*): Israelite, Parnellite.
- ment (*act of, means, result*): judgment, pavement.
- ose, -ous (*full of*): grandiose, furious.

II.—Dead

- ant, -ent (= -ing): observant, consistent.
- ance, -ence, -ancy, -ency (*the being from -ant, -ent*): observance, consistence=consistency.
- ar (*like*): angular.
- ary (*belonging to*): tributary.
- ate (*office*): consulate.
- esque (*like*): picturesque.
- ice, -ise, -ess (*quality, the being*) justice, riches (255), franchise.
- il (*belonging to*): civil.
- iff (*inclined to*): plaintiff.
- men, -me: regimen, regime.
- mony (*state of*): sanctimony.
- nd (*that is to be*): dividend.
- one, -oon (*great*): trombone, balloon.
- or (*one who, quality, act*): governor, ardour, behaviour.
- t, -te (= -ed): elect, favourite, licentiate, postulate.
- t, -ot, (*one who, an enthusiast for*): prophet, patriot.
- ion, -tion, -ation (*act or state of*): rebellion, solution, salvation.
- tor, -trix (*the doer*): competitor.
- trum, -tre (*object or means*): spectrum, spectre.
- tude (*the being*): fortitude.
- ty (*the being*): cruelty, fragility.
- ule, -cule, -cle (*little*): globule, animalcule, particle.
- ure, -ture (*act of*): departure, imposture.

(Forming Verbs)

Dead

- ate (*originally Lat. part. suffix*): assassinate, vaccinate.
- fy, Fr. (*to make*): fructify, beautify.
- ish, Fr. (*become, make, treat as*): flourish, cherish.
- ize, Gr., or -ise (*to make*): pauperize.

ANGLO-SAXON ROOT-WORDS

- Beorgan (*to shelter*): borrow, burglar, burrow, burgh, harbour, harbinger.
- Beran (*to bear*): bairn, bear, berth, birth, bier, burden.
- Betan (*to make good*): better, best (to)boot, bootless.
- Bindan (*to bind*): band, bond, bondage, bundle, woodbine.
- Blawan (*to puff*): bladder, blare, blast, blaze, blazon, chilblain.
- Brecan (*to break*): break, breakers, breach, brick.
- Bugan (*to bend*): bow, elbow, bough, buxom.
- Byrnan (*to burn*): burn, brand, brandy, brimstone, brindle, brown.
- Ceowan (*to chew*): chew, check, cud, jaw, jowl.
- Cnawan (*to know*): ken, know, knowledge.
- Cunnan (*to know*): can, con, cunning, uncouth, king.
- Daelan (*to divide*): deal, dole, dale, dell.
- Dragan (*to draw*): draw, drag, dray, draft, draggle, drain, drawl, dredge.
- Dripan (*to drip*): drip, dribble, drop, droop.

- Faran** (*to go*): far, fare, welfare, farewell, thoroughfare, ferry, ford.
Fengan (*to catch*): fang, finger, newfangled.
Fleotan (*to float*): float, fleet, floe, flotsam.
Foda (*food*): food, fodder, foster, forage, foray, father.
Grafan (*to dig or cut*): graft, grave, groove, grove, engrave.
Gyrdan (*to surround*): garden, yard, gird, girdle.
Haelan (*to heal*): hail, hale, health, hallow, holy, whole, wholesome, wassail.
Hebban (*to raise*): heave, heaven, heavy.
Magan (*to be able*): may, main, might, mighty.
Mawan (*to cut*): mow, aftermath, meadow.
Pic (*a point*): peak, pike, peck, picket, pickerel.
Sceotan (*to throw*): shoot, shot, shut, shutter, shuttle, sheet, scud.
Sceran (*to cut*): sheer, share, shear, shire, shore, scar, scare, score, short, skirt, shirt, shred.
Scufan (*to push*): shove, shovel, shuffle, scuffle, scoop, sheaf.
Settan (*to set*): set, seat, saddle, settle.
Slagan (*to strike*): slay, sledge, slug.
Slipan (*to slip*): slipper, slip, sleeve.
Stician (*to stick*): stick, stitch, stake, stock, stockade, stock-still.
Stigan (*to climb*): stair, stile, stirrup, sty.
Tellan (*to count*): tale, tell, teller, talk, toll, untold (for example, untold wealth").
Tredan (*to walk*): tread, treadle, trade.
Twa (*two*): two, twain, twin, twine, twist, twiddle, between, twig, twelve, twenty.
Witan (*to know*): wit, wise, wisdom, wistful, witness.

GREEK ROOT-WORDS

- Agon** (*a contest*): agony, antagonist.
Allos (*another*): allopathy, allegory.
Angelos (*a messenger*): angel, evangelist.
Anthropos (*a man*): misanthrope, philanthropy, anthropology.
Archo (*I begin, or rule*): monarch, archaic, archbishop, archdeacon.
Arithmos (*number*): arithmetic.
Aster, or astron (*a star*): astronomy, astrology, asterisk, disaster.
Atmos (*vapour*): atmosphere.
Autos (*self*): autocrat, autograph.
Baros (*weight*): barometer, baritone.
Biblos (*a book*): Bible, bibliomania.
Bios (*life*): biography, biology, amphibious.
Chrio (*I anoint*): Christ, chrism.
Chronos (*time*): chronology, chronic, chronicle, chronometer, anachronism.
Deka (*ten*): decalogue, decade.
Demos (*the people*): democrat, epidemic.
Dokeo (*I think*): doxa and dogma (*an opinion*); doxology, orthodox, heterodox; dogma, dogmatic.
Drao (*I do*): drama, dramatic.
Dunamis (*power*): dynamics, dynamite, dynasty.
Electron (*amber*): electricity, electrottype.

- Ergon** (*a work*): surgeon (=chirurgion; *cheir, the hand*), energy, metallurgy.
- Eu** (*well*): eucharist, euphony, evangelist.
- Gamos** (*marriage*): bigamy, monogamist.
- Ge** (*the earth*): geography, geometry, geology.
- Gennao** (*I produce*): genesis, genealogy, hydrogen, oxygen.
- Grapho** (*I write*): gramma, a letter; graphic, grammar, telegraph, biography, diagram, photograph, phonograph.
- Haima** (*blood*): hæmorrhage, hematite (iron-ore).
- Haireo** (*I take away*): heresy, heretic.
- Helios** (*the sun*): heliograph, heliotrope, (*trepein, to turn*).
- Hemi** (*half*): hemisphere.
- Hieros** (*sacred*): hierarchy, hieroglyphic, (*guphein, to carve*).
- Hippos** (*a horse*): hippopotamus, (*potamos, a river*), hippodrome, (*dromos, a running course*).
- Hodos** (*a way*): method, period, exodus, synod.
- Homos** (*the same*): homeopathy, homogeneous.
- Hudor** (*water*): hydraulic, hydrogen, hydrophobia, (*phobos, fear*).
- Idios** (*one's own*): idiom, idiot, idiosyncrasy.
- Kalos** (*beautiful*): calligraphy, kaleidoscope, calisthenics.
- Klino** (*I bend*): clinical, climax, climate.
- Krino** (*I judge*): critic, criterion, hypocrite.
- Kuklos** (*a circle*): cycle, cyclone.
- Kuon, kun-os** (*a dog*): cynic, cynicism.
- Lego** (*I say, or choose*): eclectic, lexicon.
- Lithos** (*a stone*): lithograph, ærolite, neolithic.
- Logos** (*a word, speech*): logic, dialogue, geology, eulogy.
- Luo** (*I loosen*): analysis, analytic.
- Meter** (*a mother*): metropolis, metropolitan.
- Metron** (*a measure*): metre, metronome, diameter, symmetry, thermometer, barometer.
- Monos** (*alone*): monastery, monogram, monosyllable, monopoly, monarch.
- Nomos** (*a law*): autonomy, astronomy, Deuteronomy.
- Oikos** (*a house*): economy.
- Onoma** (*a name*): anonymous, synonymous, patronymic, pseudonym (*pseudes, false*).
- Orthos** (*right*): orthodoxy, orthography.
- Pan** (*all*): pantheist, panoply, pantomime.
- Pathos** (*feeling*): pathetic, sympathy, antipathy.
- Pente** (*five*): pentagon, pentateuch, Pentecost.
- Petra** (*a rock*): petrify, petrel, Peter.
- Phainomai** (*I appear*): phenomenon, phantasy, phantom, fantastic, fancy.
- Phero** (*I bear*): periphery, phosphorous, (*phos, light*).
- Phileo** (*I love*): philosophy, Philadelphia, philharmonic, philology.
- Phone** (*a sound*): phonic, phonetic, euphony, symphony.
- Phos, photos** (*light*): photograph.
- Phusis** (*nature*): physics, physiology, physician.
- Poieo** (*I make*): poet, poetic.
- Polis** (*a city*): Constantinople, metropolis, (*meter, mother*), policy, politics, cosmopolitan (*cosmos, a world*).

- Polus (*many*): polytheist, Polynesia, polygamy.
 Pous, podos (*a foot*): antipodes, tripod.
 Protos (*first*): prototype, protoplasm.
 Pur (*fire*): pyrotechnic, pyre, pyrography.
 Rheo (*I flow*): rhetoric, catarrh, rheumatic.
 Skopeo (*I see*): microscope, telescope, spectroscope, bishop (*episkopos, an overseer*).
 Sophia (*wisdom*): sophist, philosophy.
 Stello (*I send*): apostle, epistle.
 Stratos (*an army*): strategy, strategic.
 Strepho (*I turn*): catastrophe, apostrophe.
 Techne (*an art*): technical, architect, (*tekton, a workman*).
 Tele (*distant*): telegraph, telescope, telephone, telegram.
 Temno (*I cut*): anatomy, atom.
 Theaomai (*I see*): theatre, theory.
 Theos (*a god*): theist, enthusiast, theology.
 Therme (*heat*): thermal, thermometer, isotherm.
 Tithemi (*I place*): thesis, a placing; synthesis, hypothesis.
 Treis (*three*): triangle, trigonometry, tripod, trinity, trichord.
 Trepo (*I turn*): trophy, tropic, heliotrope.
 Tupos (*the impress of a seal*): type, stereotype, electrotpe.
 Zoon (*an animal*): zoology, zodiac.

LATIN ROOT-WORDS

- Acer, acris (*sharp*): acerbity, acrid, acrimony, eager, vinegar (*sharp wine*).
 — Aedes (*a house*): edifice, edify.
 — Æquus (*equal*): adequate, equal, equator, equity, equinox, iniquity.
 — Ager (*a field*): agrarian, agriculture, peregrination.
 — Ago (*I do, act, drive*): act, actual, agent, agile, agitate, cogent.
 — Alius (*another*), alter (*the other*): alien, alibi, alter, alternate, alteration.
 — Amo (*I love*): amiable, amicable, amity, amorous, enemy, inimical.
 — Anima (*life*), animus (*mind*): animal, animate, equanimity, magnanimity, unanimous.
 — Annus (*year*): annual, anniversary, biennial, perennial, centennial.
 — Aperio (*I open*): aperture, April.
 — Appello (*I call*): appeal, appellation, peal, repeal.
 — Aqua (*water*): aqueous, aquatic, aquarium, aqueduct.
 — Ardeo (*I burn*): ardent, ardour, arson.
 — Audio (*I hear*): audience, audible, auditor, auditorium, obedient, obey.
 — Augeo (*I increase*): augment, auction, author.
 — Avis (*a bird*), augur (*a soothsayer*): aviary, auspicious, augury, inaugurate.
 — Bellum (*war*): rebel, rebellious, belligerent, bellicose.
 — Bis (*twice*): biscuit, bisect, bicycle, biennial.
 — Brevis (*short*): brevity, abbreviate, brief, breviary, abridge.
 — Cado, casus (*I fall*): cadence, case, casual, chance, decay, deciduous, occident.
 — Caelum (*heaven*): celestial, ceiling, cerulean (*sky-blue*).

- **Caedo** (*I cut*): incision, decide, precise.
- **Candeo** (*I shine*): candid, candidate, candle, candour, incense, incendiary, incandescent.
- **Cano** (*I sing*): cant, chant, incantation, incentive.
- **Capio** (*I take*): captive, accept, receive, capacity.
- **Caput** (*the head*): capital, capitol, captain, cape (headland), chapter, cattle, chattel.
- **Caro, carnis** (*flesh*): carnal, charnel, carnival, carnivorous, carrion, carnation.
- **Cedo, cessum** (*I go*): cede, accede, cease, decess, proceed, secede, ancestor.
- **Centum** (*hundred*): cent, century, centurion, centennial, centenary.
- **Cerno, cretum** (*I distinguish*): discern, discreet, concern, discriminate.
- **Cingo** (*I gird*): cincture, precinct, succinct, surcingle.
- **Cito** (*I call*): cite, excite, incite, recite.
- **Civis** (*a citizen*): civic, civilize, civilian, city, citadel.
- **Clamo** (*I shout*): claim, clamour, exclaim, proclaim.
- **Clarus** (*clear*): clear, clarify, declare, claret, clarion.
- **Claudo, clausum** (*I close*): clause, close, conclude, exclude, seclusion, cloister.
- **Clino** (*I bend*): incline, decline, declension, declivity, recline.
- **Colo, cultum** (*I till*): culture, cultivate, agriculture, colony.
- **Cor** (*the heart*): accord, courage, cordial, discord, record, core, quarry.
- **Corona** (*a crown*): crown, coronet, coroner, coronation, corolla, corollary.
- **Corpus** (*a body*): corps, corpse, corporal, corpuscle, corpulent, corporation, incorporate.
- **Credo** (*I believe*): creed, credit, credible, credence, incredulous, miscreant.
- **Creo** (*I make*): create, creature, recreation.
- **Cresco** (*I grow*): crescent, decrease, increase, increment.
- **Crux** (*a cross*): crucial, crucify, excruciate, crucifix, crusade, cruise.
- **Cura** (*care*): curious, curator, curate, accurate, procure, sure, secure, sinecure.
- **Curro, cursum** (*I run*): current, concur, recur, course, cursory, discursive, excursion, succour.
- **Decem** (*ten*): decimal, December, decimate.
- **Dens, dentis** (*a tooth*): dentist, dental, indent, trident.
- **Deus** (*God*): deist, deity, deify, divine.
- **Dico, dictum** (*I say*): verdict, dictionary, dictation, indictment, ditto, dedicate.
- **Dies** (*a day*): diary, diurnal, journal, meridian, dial.
- **Dignus** (*worthy*): dignity, dignify, indignant, deign, disdain, condign.
- **Do, datum** (*I give*): date, data, donor, tradition, add, render.
- **Doceo, doctum** (*I teach*): docile, doctor, doctrine.
- **Dominus** (*a lord*): domineer, dominion, dominant, dame, damsel, madame, danger, dungeon.
- **Domus** (*a house*): domestic, domicile.
- **Dormio** (*I sleep*): dormitory, dormant, dormouse.
- **Duco, ductum** (*I lead*): induct, education, duke, produce, conduit, reduce.

- Duo (*two*): dual, duel, duplex, double.
- Emo (*I buy*): exemption, redeem, redemption, ransom, sample.
- Eo, itum (*I go*): exit, transit, circuit, ambition, perish, itinerant, ambient.
- Erro (*I wander*): err, erratic, error, aberration.
- Esse (*to be*), futurum (*about to be*): essence, presence, entity, futurity.
- Facio (*I make*): affect, fact, feat, factor, fashion, feature, manufacture, efficient.
- Fero (*I bear*), latum (*borne*): differ, infer, refer, suffer, dilate, relative, ablative.
- Fido (*I trust*): confide, diffident, infidel.
- Fingo (*I make up*): feign, figment, faint, fiction, figure.
- Flagro (*I burn*): flagrant, conflagration.
- Flecto (*I bend*): inflect, flexible, inflection.
- Fligo (*I strike*): afflict, conflict, infliction.
- Fluo (*I flow*): fluid, influence, affluent, flux, flush, confluence, fluctuate.
- Fortis (*strong*): fortify, fortitude, effort, comfort, force, fortress.
- Frango (*I break*): fragile, frail, fragment, fracture, fraction, infringe.
- Fugio (*I flee*): fugitive, refugee, subterfuge.
- Fundo fusum (*I pour*): foundry, funnel, refund, refuse, refute, diffusion.
- Genus (*race, people*): gentile, gentle, genial, congenial, gender.
- Gero (*I bear, carry*): gerund, congest, gesture, belligerent, indigestion.
- Gradior, gressus (*I walk*): grade, degrade, graduate, congress, aggressive.
- Gravis (*heavy*): gravity, gravitation, aggravate, grief, grievance.
- Grex (*flock*): gregarious, congregate, egregious, aggregate, segregate.
- Habeo (*I have*): habit, prohibit, able, exhibit.
- Hæreo, hæsum (*I stick*): adhere, coherent, cohesion, hesitate, inherent.
- Homo (*man*): human, humane, homicide, homage.
- Impero (*I command*): emperor, empire, imperious, imperative, imperial.
- Integer (*whole, sound*): integer, disintegrate, integral, integrity.
- Jaceo (*I lie down*): adjacent.
- Jacio, jactum (*I throw*): eject, reject, object, adjective, conjecture, subject, injection.
- Jungo (*I join*): junction, juncture, conjunction, adjoin, adjunct.
- Jus (*right*): justice, jury, injury, jurist.
- Labor, lapsus (*I slide*): lapse, relapse, collapse.
- Lapis (*a stone*): lapidary, dilapidate.
- Laus (*praise*): laud, laudable.
- Lavo (*I wash*): lave, lavatory, lavender, alluvial, laundry, deluge.
- Lego (*I gather, read*): collect, elect, select, legible, lecture, lesson, legend, college.
- Lego (*I send*): legate, delegate, legacy, allege.
- Levis (*light*): levity, alleviate, relief, lever, leaven, elevate.
- Liber (*a book*): library, libel.
- Liber (*free*): liberal, liberate, deliver, libertine.
- Ligo (*I bind*): ligament, religion, oblige, league, allegiance, liable.

- **Linguo** (*I leave*): relinquish, relict, relic, delinquent.
- **Locus** (*place*): local, locate, dislocate, locomotive, allow.
- **Loquor, locutum** (*I speak*): elocution, colloquial, loquacious, circumlocution.
- **Ludo** (*I play*): elude, illusion, interlude, ludicrous.
- **Lux** (*light*): lucid, elucidate, pellucid, Lucifer.
- **Magnus** (*great*), **major** (*greater*): magnitude, magnify, magnificent, magnanimous, majesty, majority, mayor.
- **Malus** (*bad*): malady, malice, malaria, malevolent, malignant, maltreat.
- **Maneo, mansum** (*I remain*): manse, mansion, permanent, manor.
- **Manus** (*the hand*): manuscript, manual, manufacture, amanuensis, emancipate, manceuvre.
- **Mare** (*the sea*): marine, mariner, maritime.
- **Mater** (*mother*): maternal, matricide, matron, matriculate.
- **Medius** (*the middle*): medium, mediate, immediate, Mediterranean, mediocre, mediæval.
- **Memini** (*I remember*), **memor** (*mindful*): memory, memoir, commemorate, immemorial.
- **Mens, mentis** (*the mind*): mental, demented, mention.
- **Mergo, mersum** (*I dip*): emerge, immersion, emergency.
- **Merx** (*goods*): merchandise, commerce, merchant.
- **Mirror** (*I admire*): admirable, miracle, mirage.
- **Mitto, missum** (*I send*): commit, missile, mission, remittance, admit, promise.
- **Modus** (*measure*): mood, modify, accommodate, modest, moderate, modulate.
- **Moneo, monitum** (*I advise*): admonition, monitor, monument, monster, demonstrate.
- **Mors, mortis** (*death*): mortify, mortal, immortality.
- **Moveo, motum** (*I move*): mobile, promote, motor, motive, mob, motion.
- **Multus** (*many*): multitude, multiple, multiply.
- **Munus, muneris** (*a gift*): munificent, remunerate, municipal.
- **Muto** (*I change*): mutable, transmute, commute, mutual.
- **Nascor, natus** (*to be born*): nascent, natal, nativity, nature, nation, cognate.
- **Navis** (*a ship*): navy, naval, navigate, nave, nautical, navvy.
- **Nego, negatum** (*I deny*): negative, negation, renegade.
- **Noceo** (*I hurt*): innocent, noxious, innoxious, nuisance.
- **Nosco, notum** (*I know*): nomen (name), note, notice, notify, notion, notorious, ignoble, nominal, noun, ignominious.
- **Nox** (*night*): nocturnal, equinox.
- **Odium** (*hatred*): odious, annoy, ennui, noisome.
- **Omnis** (*all*): omnibus, omniscient, omnipotent.
- **Opus, operis** (*work*): opera, operation, co-operate.
- **Oro** (*I speak, pray*): oration, adore, orison, peroration.
- **Pando, pansum or passum** (*I spread*): expand, expanse, compass, pace, pan.
- **Pareo** (*I appear*): appearance, apparent, apparition.
- **Paro, paratum** (*I prepare*): repair, apparatus, comparison.
- **Pars, partis** (*a part*): particle, partition, partner, parcel, parse, party.

Pasco, pastum (*I feed*): pastor, repast, pasture.

Pater (*a father*): paternal, parricide, patrimony, patron.

Pator, passus (*I suffer*): impatient, passive, passion, compassion.

Pello, pulsum (*I drive*): repel, expel, expulsion, impulsive, pulse.

Pendeo, pensum (*I hang*): pendant, depend, suspend, suspense, appendix.

Pes, pedis (*the foot*): pedal, impede, pedestrian, biped.

Peto, petitum (*I seek*): petition, petulant, compete, appetite, repeat.

Plaudo, plausum (*I clap the hands*): applaud, plausible, explode.

Pleo, pletum (*I fill*): complete, supplement, expletive, replete.

Plico (*I fold*): complicated, pliable, reply, display, simple, explicit.

Pœna (*punishment*): penal, repent, penalty, penitent, penance, subpœna.

Pono, positum (*I place*): position, imposition, post, positive, deposit, compound.

Premo (*I press*): pressure, impress, reprimand, print.

Primus (*first*): prime, primitive, primeval, primrose.

Pugno (*I fight*): pugnacious, impugn, repugnant, pugilist, poniard.

Pungo, punctum (*I pierce*): puncture, pungent, poignant, punctual, point.

Quæro (*I ask*): query, inquire, quest, inquest, exquisite.

Queror (*I complain*): querulous, quarrel, cry.

Radix (*root*): radical, eradicate, radish.

Rapio (*I snatch*): rapid, rapt, rapacity, rapine, raven, ravenous.

Rego, rectus (*I make straight*): regular, direct, erect, regent, regimen, rector, rectify.

Rex, regis (*king*): regal, regicide, royal.

Res (*thing*): real, republic.

Rideo (*I laugh*): deride, risible, ridicule.

Rogo (*I ask*): arrogate, derogatory, prorogue.

Rudis (*untaught*): rude, erudite, rudiment.

Rumpo, ruptum (*I break*): rupture, abrupt, bankrupt, rout, eruption, corrupt.

Rus, ruris (*country*): rustic, rural.

Sal (*salt*): saline, salary, salad, sauce.

Salio (*I leap*): salient, salmon, assail, assault, insult, resilient, salary.

Sanus (*sound*): sane, sanity, sanitary.

Scando (*I climb*): scan, ascend, descent, condescend, scale, escalade.

Scio (*I know*): science, prescience, omniscience, conscience.

Scribo (*I write*): scribe, describe, script, conscript, scripture, post-script.

Sedeo, sessum (*I sit*): sediment, assiduous, sedate, possess, consider, sedentary, assess, sedulous, preside, subside.

Sentio (*I feel*): sentient, scent, sentence, assent, dissent, sense.

Sequor (*I follow*): sequence, consequent, sequel, persecute, consecutive, obsequies, sue, suit, suite.

Similis (*like*): similar, assimilate, resemble, semblance, simulate.

Solus (*alone*): sole, solitude, solo.

Solvo, solum (*I loosen*): solve, solvent, resolve, dissolute, solution, soluble.

Sonus (*sound*): sonorous, consonant, parson, unison, sonnet.

- **Spicio, spectrum** (*I look*): species, (appearance), spectator, specimen, suspect, despise, spice, respect.
- **Spiro** (*I breathe*): aspire, expire, conspire, spirit.
- **Sterno, stratum** (*I throw down*): prostrate, consternation, street.
- **Sto, statum** (*I stand*): station, stature, stable, distant, obstacle, superstition, armistice, substance, contrast.
- **Stringo, strictum** (*I tighten*): stringent, strain, strict, strait.
- **Struo, structum** (*I build*): construe, structure, instrument, destroy.
- **Superus** (*upper*), **supremus** (*highest*): insuperable, supremacy, sum, summit, consummate.
- **Tango, tactum** (*I touch*): tangent, tangible, contingent, contagion, contiguous, contact, pertain, attain, attach.
- **Tempus** (*time*): tempest, temporal, extempore, temporary, tense.
- **Teneo, tentum** (*I hold*): tenant, tenure, tenacious, retain, contain, content, continue, retinue, tendril.
- **Terra** (*land*): inter, terrestrial, terrace, terrier, terrene, subterranean.
- **Torqueo, torsum** (*I twist*): torture, torment, contort, torch.
- **Traho, tractum** (*I draw*): tract, retract, retreat, tract, train, trail, traction, attract, tractable.
- **Undo** (*I flow*), **unda** (*wave*): abound, redound, redundant, undulate, inundate.
- **Unus** (*one*): union, unity, universe, unique, unison.
- **Urbs** (*city*): urban, urbane, suburb.
- **Veho, vectum** (*I carry*): vehicle, vehement, inveigh, invective, convex.
- **Venio** (*I come*): convene, advent, venture, event, covenant, venue.
- **Verto, versum** (*I turn*): verse, version, convert, divorce, advertise, universe, vortex, vertical, versatile, adversary.
- **Via** (*way*): devious, convey, convoy, impervious, obviate, trivial.
- **Video, visum** (*I see*): evident, visage, provident, prudent, envious, vision, visor, provide, revise, survey.
- **Vinco, victum** (*I conquer*): convince, invincible, vanquish, victim, convict.
- **Vivo, victum** (*I live*): vivid, revive, vivacity, vital, victuals.
- **Voco** (*I call*), **vox** (*voice*): vocation, invoke, vocal, invocation, provoke, vowel, vocabulary.
- **Volo** (*I will*): voluntary, volunteer, volition, benevolent, malevolent.
- **Volvo** (*I roll*): revolve, volume, voluble.
- **Vulgus** (*the commons*): vulgar, divulge, vulgate, vogue.

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